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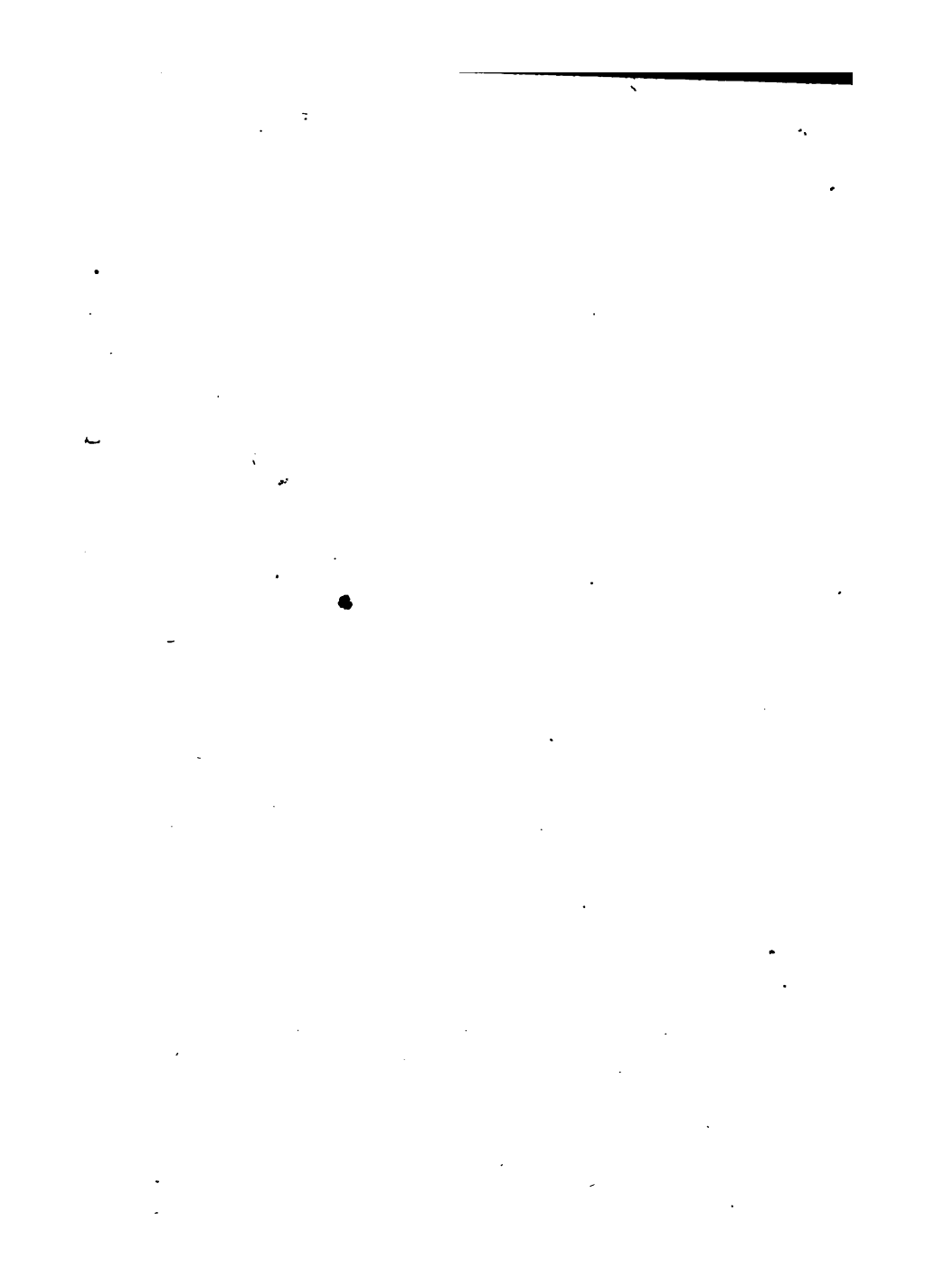
LONDON GEOGRAPHICAL SERIES

GEOGRAPHICAL READERS

BOOK V.

THE OLD AND THE NEW WORLD  
ASIA, AFRICA, AMERICA, AND AUSTRALIA.







THE LONDON GEOGRAPHICAL SERIES.

# GEOGRAPHICAL READERS.

BY

CHARLOTTE M. MASON,

AUTHRESS OF

"THE FORTY SHIRES, THEIR HISTORY, SCENERY, ARTS, AND LEGENDS."

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## Book V.

### THE OLD AND THE NEW WORLD:

ASIA, AFRICA, AMERICA, AND AUSTRALIA.

THE CAUSES WHICH AFFECT CLIMATE;

AND

THE INTERCHANGE OF PRODUCTIONS.

With Maps.

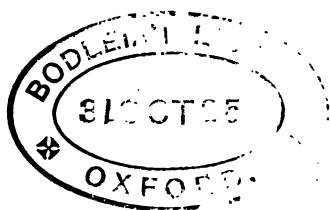
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1884.

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## PREFACE.

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IN this, as in former numbers of this series, the author has tried to bring before the children vivid pictures of the regions treated of, and familiar ideas as to the manner of life of the people who dwell in those regions. Further than this, her aim has been to furnish such interesting and attractive lessons as should promote in the children a taste for reading.

She wishes to commend, again, the Map Questions to the notice of teachers.

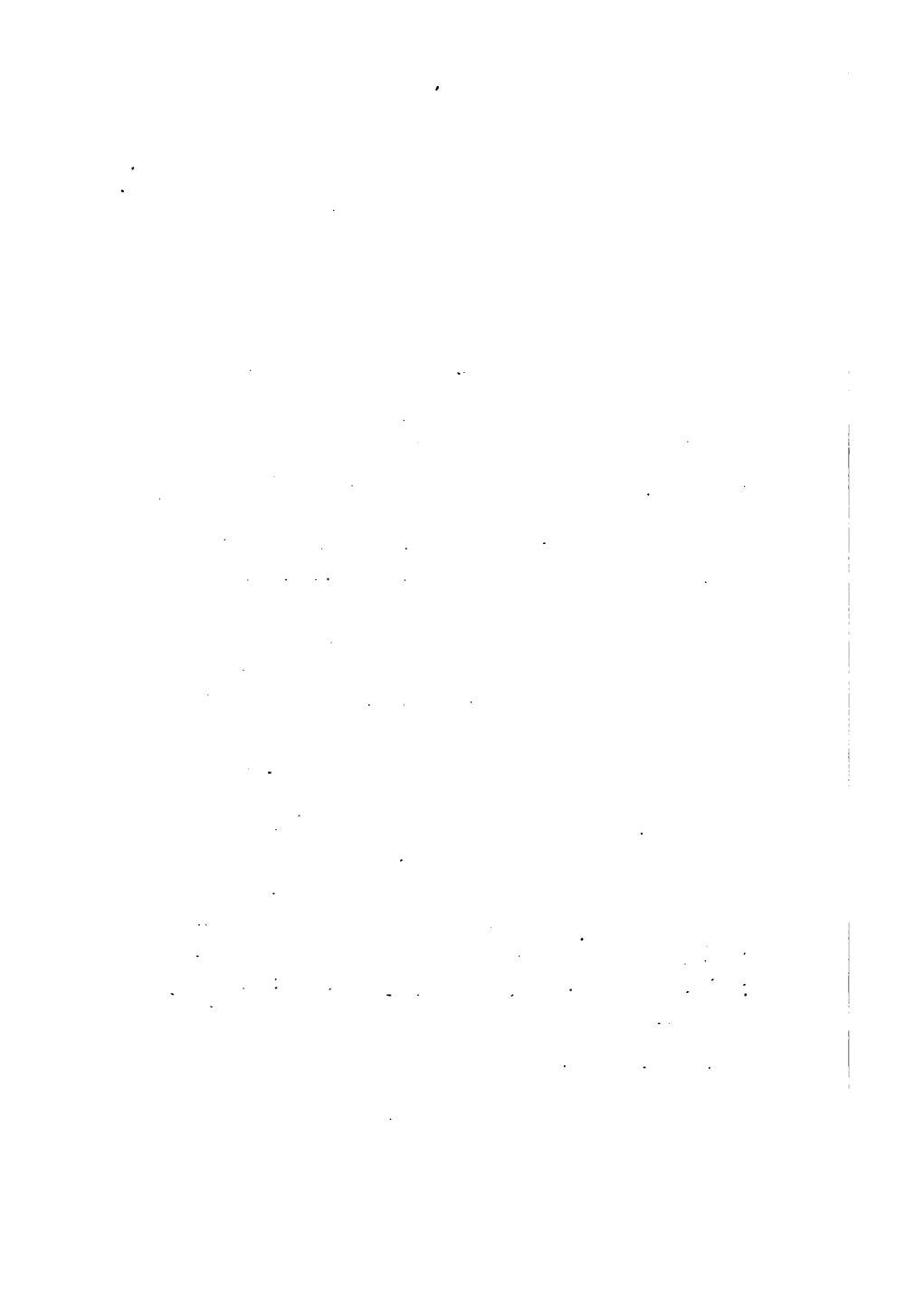
Also, she would take this opportunity to express her grateful thanks for the hearty reception given to the earlier numbers of the series by persons well qualified to appraise its educational value.

The writer begs to acknowledge her obligations to the authors and publishers of the very numerous works to which she is indebted for information.

Especially she begs to thank the publishers of those works, the titles of which appear in footnotes, from which she has been generously permitted to make citations.

MANNINGHAM, 1884.





# CONTENTS.

ASIA—	PAGE
GENERAL SURVEY .. .. .	1
"        "    PART II. .. .. .	4
"        "    " III. .. .. .	8
"        "    " IV. .. .. .	11
SIBERIA .. .. .	17
KAMTOCHATKA .. .. .	20
TURKEY IN ASIA .. .. .	22
"        "    PART II. .. .. .	26
THE HOLY LAND .. .. .	29
DAMASCUS .. .. .	35
ARABIA .. .. .	38
"        PART II. .. .. .	43
PERSIA .. .. .	48
CENTRAL ASIA .. .. .	56
OUR INDIAN EMPIRE .. .. .	63
HISTORY OF BRITISH INDIA .. .. .	66
THE HIMALAYA MOUNTAINS .. .. .	69
THE VALLEY OF THE GANGES .. .. .	71
THE VALLEY OF THE INDUS .. .. .	75
THE DECCAN .. .. .	76
THE COAST PLAINS .. .. .	78
INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES .. .. .	80
THE CELESTIAL EMPIRE .. .. .	87
THE COREA AND OTHER GREAT DEPENDENCIES OF CHINA .. .. .	87
CHINA PROPER .. .. .	94
PART II.—THE CELESTIAL EMPIRE .. .. .	97
JAPAN .. .. .	103
AFRICA .. .. .	109
DR. LIVINGSTONE'S DISCOVERIES IN SOUTH AFRICA .. .. .	115
AFRICAN VILLAGE LIFE .. .. .	118
DR. LIVINGSTONE ON THE CONDITION OF SOUTH AFRICA .. .. .	121

	PAGE
THE DISCOVERIES OF CAPTAINS BURTON, SPEKE, GRANT, ETC. .. .. .	125
ABYSSINIA .. .. .	129
EGYPT .. .. .	133
" PART II. .. .. .	136
" " III. .. .. .	138
UP THE NILE .. .. .	141
THE SOUDAN .. .. .	144
THE SAHARA .. .. .	151
THE BARBARY STATES .. .. .	154
SOUTH AFRICA .. .. .	161
CAPE COLONY .. .. .	164
THE ISLANDS ROUND AFRICA .. .. .	170
AMERICA—	
THE PROGRESS OF DISCOVERY IN AMERICA .. .. .	173
SOUTH AMERICA—	
THE ANDES AND THE MOUNTAIN STATES .. .. .	178
CHILI .. .. .	180
PERU .. .. .	181
BOLIVIA .. .. .	183
ECUADOR .. .. .	184
COLOMBIA .. .. .	185
VENEZUELA .. .. .	185
GUIANA .. .. .	186
THE GREAT PLAINS OF SOUTH AMERICA .. .. .	186
CENTRAL AMERICA .. .. .	191
NORTH AMERICA .. .. .	193
" " PART II. .. .. .	197
THE DOMINION OF CANADA .. .. .	202
THE UNITED STATES .. .. .	210
THE EASTERN STATES .. .. .	215
STATES OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY .. .. .	221
THE PRAIRIES .. .. .	223
THE WESTERN STATES AND TERRITORIES .. .. .	228
CALIFORNIA .. .. .	232
MEXICO .. .. .	238
THE WEST INDIES .. .. .	244
THE GREATER ANTILLES .. .. .	246
THE LESSER ANTILLES .. .. .	249

# CONTENTS.

vii

	PAGE
BRAZIL .. .. .	254
THE MINES .. .. .	258
THE FOREST AND THE CAMPO .. .. .	258
THE COAST TOWNS .. .. .	260
THE REPUBLICS OF THE LA PLATA .. .. .	262
POLYNESIA .. .. .	268
" PART II. .. .. .	271
" " III. .. .. .	272
AUSTRALIA .. .. .	278
" PART II. .. .. .	283
NEW SOUTH WALES .. .. .	288
VICTORIA .. .. .	291
QUEENSLAND .. .. .	292
SOUTH AUSTRALIA .. .. .	293
WESTERN AUSTRALIA .. .. .	294
TASMANIA .. .. .	295
NEW ZEALAND .. .. .	298

## CAUSES WHICH AFFECT CLIMATE—

LESSON I.—SUNSHINE .. .. .	301
" II.—AIR AND SUNSHINE .. .. .	303
" III.—WATER AND SUNSHINE .. .. .	305
" IV.—AIR IN MOTION .. .. .	307
" V.—THE WIND AND THE RAIN .. .. .	311
" VI.—THE SNOW LINE, ETC. .. .. .	316

INTERCHANGE OF PRODUCTIONS .. .. .	320
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# BOOK V.

## THE OLD AND THE NEW WORLD.

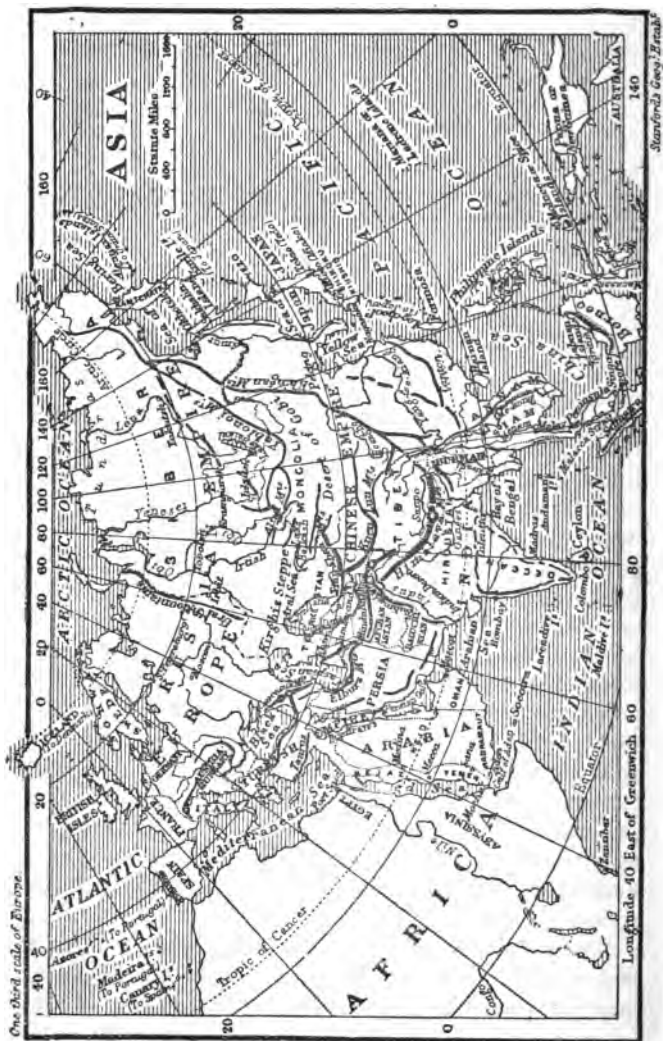
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### ASIA.

#### GENERAL SURVEY.

ASIA, the East, or Morning Land of the world, forms a third of all the land on the earth's surface, and is five times as large as Europe. The two land masses whose confines are marked by the Ural mountains are alike in many respects. Asia has, like Europe, three great peninsulas on the south; Arabia is an unbroken mass, like Spain; India, with Ceylon, compares with Italy and Sicily, both peninsulas being flanked on the north by the loftiest mountains of their respective continents. Further India, like Greece, is the most broken of the three, and the East Indian Archipelago is not unlike that of the Mediterranean. Putting the east coast of Asia for the west of Europe, the British Islands will correspond to those of Japan, and the Scandinavian peninsula to that of Kamtchatka. In the interior, many parallels may be drawn in the position of the mountains and lowlands, and in the direction of the rivers.

But in Asia the great features of the land are all on a larger scale than in Europe. It has wider plains, larger rivers, higher mountains—the highest in the



world ; and, what is peculiar to Asia, it has a chain of high table-lands, which stretches almost across the continent from west to east. These enormous plateaus occupy nearly two-fifths of the continent, and rise above the average height of the European mountains, while the mountains themselves that gird and cross them surpass those of every other country in height. It is a mistake to look upon the mountains as independent ranges ; they are, for the most part, simply the lofty and uneven edges, the broken faces, of the table-lands which they shut in.

Beginning at the west, there is first, the table-land of Asia Minor, with the Taurus mountains ; then the vast table-land of Persia, crossed by the Elburz mountains, and continued in the highlands of Afghanistan and Beluchistan.

The Hindu Kush range forms the sort of mountain isthmus which joins the highlands of the west with those of the east. In this central region is the Pamir steppe, "the roof of the world" ; and here are the giant Bolor Tagh mountains running northwards ; while spreading away to the east are the great table-lands of Tibet and Mongolia.

The great Himalaya chain, "the abode of snow," forms the southern edge of the plateau of Tibet ; the plateau itself reaches a height of 17,000 feet, greater than that of the highest Alps ; while Mount Everest, the highest of the Himalaya chain, and the loftiest mountain in the world, is 29,000 feet in height.

The Kuen Lun mountains cross the table-land, and to the north of it are the Tian Shan mountains, the Altai range, and the long mountain ranges which, under various names, stretch into the extreme north-east of the continent.



Besides these, there are the Chinese mountains and those of Further India, and the table-land of the Deccan—walled in by mountain ranges—in the Indian peninsula, as well as the great plateau of Arabia.

Tibet is by far the loftiest of the table-lands which fill Central Asia, that of Persia being about 4000 feet, the height of our highest British mountains. The bare region of Tibet is, indeed, the highest plateau land of the world; and here the wandering herdsman tends his flocks of long-haired shawl-wool goats, his sheep, and his yak oxen; for grain can only be cultivated in the deeper valleys. This is the country of the wild horse and of the great wild sheep.

Lastly, we must notice the curious chain of volcanic mountains which skirt the eastern coast of Asia, beginning in Kamtchatka, passing through the Kurile Islands to Japan, thence through the Loo Choo Islands to Formosa, and from that through the Philippines to Borneo, Sumatra, and Java, which last has a greater number of volcanic cones than is to be found on any land of the same size in the earth.

---

## Part II.

Stretching northwards from the mountains to the Arctic shores is the great Siberian plain, separated from the plains of Europe only by the narrow belt of the Ural. On the west, the plain is enormously wide, but towards the east the mountains encroach on the lowlands, until at last they are narrowed to mere coast plains.

Very different landscapes appear in different parts of the great plain of the north. On the south-west, from

the Caspian, where the Sea of Aral and Lake Balkash are all that is left of a great Mediterranean which once covered these low lands, are deserts of drift sand; but where the rivers cross these, there are lovely patches of brilliant green, as in the gardens round the cities of Samarcand and Khiva, which seem, by contrast with the desert, to be very gardens of Eden.

About 50° N. lat., the deserts give place to the region of grassy steppes, where rain is less scanty, and where the nomadic peoples wander with their flocks and herds, and pitch their homes—tents of black horse-hair—wherever there is a show of green pasture. The southern part is known as the Kirghiz steppe, and is occupied by hordes of the nomadic Kirghiz, whose wealth is in their flocks of broad-tailed sheep and their camel droves. In the hot summer, clouds of midges hover over the grazing herds; while winter brings a covering of hard frozen snow, over which the sledge caravans pass on their way to the winter fairs.

Gradually, in about 55° N., the steppe begins to be covered with trees, and we enter the *forest zone*, with its woods of pine, and fir, and birch, sheltering innumerable squirrels, martens, and sables, bears, foxes, and reindeer. Here the Russian and Samoide hunters carry on their winter fur campaigns.

Approaching the Arctic Circle, the trees thin out, and give place at last to the bare swampy levels of the *tundra region*, over which winter holds sway during the greater part of the year. In the tundras, the nomadic Samoide hunts and fishes; and hither, in the short summer, the reindeer come to crop the mosses—the only vegetation of this rigorous clime. So level are the tundras, that along the coast in winter it would be difficult to tell where land ceases and the ice-covering

of the Arctic Sea begins, were it not for the line of drift timber marking the shore. Here the Polar bear and the Arctic fox are trapped by the hardy hunter.

The remaining lowlands of Asia occur along the borders of the continent. To the west is the great plain of Mesopotamia, watered by the Euphrates and the Tigris, once made fertile by innumerable channels led from these rivers, but now appearing as a great dry steppe, green only in the wet season. Next comes the plain of Hindustan, the west of it, the "Indian Desert," the east, the fertile basin of the Ganges, the richest and most populous part of India; and lastly, there is the wide river plain of China, tilled and watered in the most wonderful way to support the teeming population of the country.

The rivers of Asia flow outwards from the edges of the great highlands to the Indian, the Pacific, and the Arctic oceans; but within the borders of the great plateaus, and in the dry wastes of the steppes and deserts, there are immense regions from which no river finds its way to the ocean.

The largest rivers are those which flow northwards over the Siberian lowlands and into the Arctic seas. The Obi (2700 miles), rich in fish, is the great summer thoroughfare for all Western Siberia. Twice a year it is in flood, when the plain is a wide waste of waters, above which only the tree-tops rise. It is frozen at its mouth between October and May,

The Yenisei is a still larger river, ranked by Russian geographers after the Mississippi. It gathers its headwaters in Lake Baikal, the largest fresh-water lake in Asia.

The Lena is the great water-way for Eastern Siberia, and, like the other two great rivers, is traversed by

steamboats in the summer. At Yakutsk, it is frozen over for more than two hundred days in the year.

Coming round to the Pacific slope, we meet with the Amoor, great as these, and called the "black river," on account of its dark brown waters. The two great rivers of China, the Hoang-ho, or "yellow river," and the Yang-tse-kiang, the "son of the ocean," have their head streams near one another in the mountains of Tibet, and after flowing widely apart, draw together again at their mouths. The Hoang-ho, "the trouble of the sons of Hona," is a wayward and turbulent river, which has changed its course over the lower plains of China no less than nine times. The Yang-tse-kiang, on the other hand, is the great commercial river of China.

Passing the Me-kong and the Menam, the "mother of waters," and the Irawadi, we come to the twin rivers, Brahmaputra and Ganges, with their huge delta at the head of the Gulf of Bengal, where, twice a day, the down-flowing waters of the two great rivers have a stout battle with the incoming tide amongst the islands of the Sunderbunds. The Ganges, the sacred river of the Hindus, rises in a snow-field of the southern face of the Himalaya, some 14,000 feet above the sea.

The Indus, the great western river of India, rises high up in the dreary table-land of Tibet. Owing to its shifting channels and sandbanks, it is of less value for traffic than most rivers of its size. Of the great twin rivers of Mesopotamia we have already spoken.

Turning now to Central Asia, we find that the drainage is *continental*; that is, the rivers are lost in the deserts, or flow into the numerous salt lakes of the region, but never escape to the ocean. The wide steppes around the Caspian and the Sea of Aral, as well as the countries included in the highlands—Persi-

and Arabia, Turkistan, Tibet, and Mongolia—are, for the most part, within this *continental drainage* area of Asia.

The Aral, the “sea of islands,” is wider and larger than the Irish Sea, though much shallower. Its two great feeders are the Syr Daria and the Amu Daria (Oxus), the largest of the rivers which do not reach the ocean.

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### Part III.

The northern shores of Asia stretch into the Arctic regions, the southern peninsulas and islands reach into the tropics; all the rest of Asia is in the temperate zone. But the fact which most affects the climate of the continent is the position of the great belt of highlands which occupies Central Asia, stretching from the south-west to the north-east. The summer sun shines down fiercely on the plateaus, plains, and bordering peninsulas. So hot to the touch does the land become, that it heats the air above it, which grows light, and rises in the same way as does the hot air in a crowded lecture-room. Then the cool, moisture-laden winds from the oceans rush in to supply the place of this heated air. Rain-bearing winds (monsoons) from the Indian Ocean and the Pacific drop their delicious floods over Hindustan, Further India, China, the islands, and, even before the rains have ceased, the whole of the parched earth is rich and green with luxuriant plant life.

Nay, even the icy northern slopes receive their share: moist winds are drawn in from the thawing Arctic, from the far Atlantic, and bring the rains which support the vast forests of Siberia. To the very edges of the vast central table-lands do the rich rain-winds

penetrate; but, alas for the highlands, lofty mountains tower like battlements all round the plateaus; the rain-winds touch their cold, snowy brows, and the moisture in the air condenses, becomes snow or rain, and at last pours in floods down the steep sides of the highlands, and feeds the mighty rivers which rise upon their borders; but all the time, never a rain-cloud climbs the summits of the flanking mountains to fall in delicious drops upon the parched plateaus; and these central highlands of Asia remain *rainless regions*.

"Therefore it is that all the inner plateaus of Asia, the vast regions of Mongolia, of Eastern Turkistan and Tibet, of Persia and Asia Minor, present landscapes of bare steppes and sandy deserts, with their accompanying dry atmosphere, cloudless blue skies, and failing and treacherous periodical streams (fed by the melting of the mountain snows), that end in salt lakes, or evaporate on the sands. Hence, also, their inhabitants, compelled to seek fresh pastures and watering places with almost every change of season, appear as restless nomads: hence also their inclination to quit their barren steppes at times, and sweep like a devastating flight of locusts over the settled nations of the south and west."

Another notable thing about the climate of Asia is its *excessive* character: islands and maritime countries, with coasts much broken into by the sea, have always a *tempered* climate; that is to say, the cool, moist sea-breezes make the greatest summer heat endurable, while the "raw edge" is taken off the coldest day of winter by the moist and *warmer* winds from off the sea. The further a region is removed from the sea, therefore, the more excessive is its climate; that is, the more severe is the winter cold, and the more intense is the

summer heat. A glance at the map shows that only round its coasts is Asia broken into by the sea: the centre is a vast solid mass of land where excessive cold is followed quite suddenly by such summer heat as our insular climate gives us no experience of.

Probably at Yakutsk, in Eastern Siberia, the most excessive climate in the world is reached: the winter cold is many degrees below that of the frozen ocean to the north of it, and the soil is permanently frozen to the depth of 380 feet, and yet the summer heat, in the month of July, is as great as that of Paris in the same month! In India and the seaboard countries of the south-east, on the contrary, the temperature remains pretty much the same all the year round; and the seasons are not, hot and cold, but, dry and wet, according to the direction of the monsoon winds.

To Central Asia we owe most of the European grains and tree-fruits,—oranges and lemons, peaches and apricots, the fig and olive, vines and nut-trees, besides hemp and flax, the garden rose, and many other cultivated flowering plants. From India come the banana, rice, and the sugar-cane, indigo, and several sorts of cotton. China is the native country of the tea-plant; the East India islands and the Malay peninsula, of spices, cinnamon, black pepper, and cloves, and of the large tree yielding the milky juice that hardens into “gutta-percha.”

The mountain region of Central Asia is the native land of the horse and the ass, of the ox and buffalo, the sheep and goat, from which the domesticated varieties appear to be derived. Both varieties of camel, the single and the double-humped, are Asiatic. The yak ox, with its silky coat of long hair, is to the nomads of Tibet what the reindeer is to the tribes of the Siberian

plains, almost their sole wealth and support. The elephant, of a different species from that of Africa, is a native of the tropical parts of Asia: the tiger is peculiar to the south-eastern parts of the continent, where is the lion also, but smaller than that of Africa: bears of various kinds are found in all parts: in all Mohammedan Asia the dog is held an unclean animal, and prowls about as the scavenger of the towns and villages. The domestic poultry of all parts of the world seems to have been derived from Asia. Tropical Asia abounds in monkeys, the largest being the "orang-outang," the "wild man of the woods" of Malacca and the south-eastern islands: some are tailed, others are tailless, but none have prehensile tails like the monkeys of America.

Siberia is the great mining region of Asia, yielding gold, silver, and platinum, copper and lead, coal, and graphite or black-lead: India has diamonds and other precious stones: China has its fine porcelain clay: the steppes round the Caspian are rich in salt, and also in springs of naphtha or petroleum, now made use of by the steamers of the Caspian instead of coal; these springs are the ancient "fire-fields" to which the fire-worshippers of Persia were wont to make pilgrimages.

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#### Part IV.

The various peoples of Europe belong, for the most part, to a single race—the Aryan, or Indo-European: Asia, on the contrary, is peopled by four races, each differing from the other as much in character as in type of face and form.

Of these races, the Mongolians occupy by far the



greatest part of the continent, and are, indeed, the most numerous of the races that people the world. They are distinguished, more or less, by yellow skins, coarse black hair, high cheek-bones, and small obliquely-set eyes. They occupy the whole of Eastern, Northern, and Central Asia: to the Mongolian peoples belong the cultivated Japanese, the Chinese, and Coreans; the peoples of Further India; the wandering herdsmen of Tibet, Mongolia, Turkistan; the Tartars and the Turks, and all the peoples of Northern Siberia.

It is supposed that at one time the Mongolian races peopled India also; but, in far distant ages upon which history throws little light, a fair-complexioned, taller people descended from the high plateau of the north-west, and being braver in war and more skilful in the arts of peace than the Mongolians, they dispossessed them, and seized for themselves the plains of Northern India, and then came to be known as Hindus—the dwellers by the Indus. These people belonged to the Aryan or Indo-European race, which afterwards spread over Europe. The chief Asiatic peoples of this stock are the Afghans, the Beluchis, the Kurds, the peasants of Persia, and the mountain-peoples of Armenia and the Caucasus. Amongst the latter, the beautiful Circassians and Georgians are perhaps the finest types of the race, which is distinguished by well-cut features, fair complexion, fine soft hair, beautifully shaped head, and well-developed forms.

The Semitic race includes the peoples of Syria and Arabia, and the wanderers over the Mesopotamian plains; but they are, for the most part, under the government of the Turks, who are of Mongolian descent. The strongly-marked and familiar features of the Jew represent the Semitic type.

The Malays occupy the Malay peninsula and the tropical East India islands. They are a well-formed people, but somewhat short, with large mouth, flat nose, coarse black hair, and brown complexion. In the interior of many of the islands of the Eastern Archipelago are to be found a woolly-haired, black-skinned, negro-like people.

"The three religions of the world which worship one God—the Jewish, Christian, and Mohammedan—arose among the Semitic peoples of South-western Asia. Christianity has become the religion of Europe, but in its native country it has been overshadowed by Mohammedanism, which prevails in all South-western Asia, in Asiatic Turkey and Arabia, in Persia and Turkistan, and, to a great extent, in India and Further India. Christianity appears only here and there, as among the Armenians and Georgians."

The leading article in the creed of the Mohammedan is, "There is no God but God, and Mohammed is his prophet." He believes that his fate is fixed and cannot be altered, in eternal punishment for idolaters and unbelievers, in a voluptuous paradise for the faithful; and frequent ablutions, prayers five times a day, a pilgrimage to the shrine of the Prophet, feasts, abstaining from wine and the flesh of swine, and the giving of alms, are religious duties. The Mohammedan's bible is the Koran: his weekly day of rest is Friday. Mohammedan temples, or mosques, are roofed with rounded domes, and adorned with slender minaret towers, from which the call to prayer is given. The priests are called *Imans*, and the monks are *Dervishes* or *Fakirs*.

"In Hindustan, so far as Mohammedanism has not taken its place, the *Brahminic* religion prevails, and from it arose the religion of *Buddha*, which spread over

Further India, Tibet, China, and Japan, and which has far more numerous adherents than any other faith in the world.

"Brahminism has three principal gods,—Brahma, the creator of the universe; Siva, the destroyer; and Vishnu, the preserver. Its Scriptures are the *Vedas*, perhaps the oldest writings in the world. The purified soul is supposed to return to the Creator, but the impure soul wanders or transmigrates through animals and men again till it becomes pure. Good works, prayer, and fastings, and even self-torture are the acts of a pious life.

"Hindu society is divided into four chief *castes* or classes, and many minor ones, which are kept apart by laws and penalties: the Brahmans, or priests, supposed to have issued from the mouth of Brahma at the moment of creation, the soldiers, the traders, the servants, and, lowest of all, the *Pariahs*, or outcasts.

"Some centuries before Christ, Buddha, a prince of a kingdom in Northern India, began to preach a new religion, and continued his mission for forty years: the new religion spread, perhaps because it taught a spirit of charity, opposed to the harshness of caste. The Buddhism of Tibet is known as Lamaism, and has rosaries, processions, and patron saints; that of China is overlaid by the worship of absurd images." \*

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#### Questions on the Map of Asia.

1. Name three great rivers which flow into the Arctic Ocean. What name is given to the marshy lands round the Arctic coast? Name a town on the Lena. A lake in its course. A town on the Yenesei. In what mountains does the Obi rise? A tributary of the Obi.

\* Keith Johnston's 'Geography.'

A town on its banks. Name the vast region of Northern Asia drained by these rivers. Of what empire does it form a part? What mountains separate Russia in Asia from Russia in Europe?

2. Name the region around the heads of the Caspian Sea and the Sea of Aral. A lake in the eastern part of the steppe. What two rivers flow into the Sea of Aral? What country is drained by these rivers? Name two towns in Turkistan. What great mountain range lies to the south of this country?

3. The Hindu Kush mountains form the central mountain knot of Asia:—Name (1) the chain which branches out westward, skirting the foot of the Caspian Sea. (2) The chains which branch out towards the north-east, crossing Siberia. (3) The chain which goes directly east, forming the northern boundary of Tibet. (4) The great chain running south-east, which forms the boundary between Tibet and India. (5) The chain which divides the valley of the Indus from the countries to the north-west of India.

4. Name the two countries to the north-west of India. Which of these has any seaboard? Upon what sea? What mountain chains hem in the table-land of Tibet, on the north, and on the south? Name four great rivers which rise in the table-land. What three mountain ranges partly inclose the table-land of Mongolia? A desert occupies a great part of Mongolia,—name the desert.

5. Five land-locked seas wash the eastern coasts of Asia:—name them in order, and say by what islands and peninsulas each is inclosed. What is the nearest land across Behring Sea? Name the group of islands here which belong to the United States. By what two seas is the peninsula of Kamtchatka washed? What great river enters the Sea of Okhotsk? What chain of small islands belonging to Japan crosses the mouth of this sea? Name the three principal islands of Japan, and any towns in these islands. With what islands of Western Europe may they be compared in size and position?

6. What two great rivers fall into the Yellow Sea? What country do these drain? Name a town in the north, and a town in the south of China. What islands lie off the shores of China? Which of these belong to Japan?

7. Name three countries in the peninsula of Further India, to the south-west of China. What is the tongue of the peninsula called? Name the town on a small island at its point. Name the large river of Further India which flows into the China Sea. The river which flows into the Indian Ocean.

8. What large island lies on the further side of the Malacca

Strait? An immense island crossing the equator. A small island off its coasts in the China Sea. Another large island crossing the equator, on the further side of the Macassar Strait. A group of small islands on the equator. An immense island immediately to the south of the equator. The nearest land to the south of New Guinea. A group of islands belonging to Spain which partly inclose the China Sea.

9. What waters wash the shores of India? What mountain chains bound it on the north and north-west? Name the two great rivers which drain the plains at the foot of these mountain chains. In what direction does each river flow? Into what sea? What desert lies in the basin of the Indus? Southern India is a plateau hemmed round by mountains,—name them. Two towns on the eastern coast. One on the west. An island at the foot of the peninsula. Three groups of islands in the seas round its shores.

10. The most western peninsula of Asia. Compare the peninsulas of Southern Asia with those of Southern Europe, as to number, position, &c. What waters wash the shores of Arabia? What (British) town stands at the entrance to the Red Sea? What continent lies on the further side of the Red Sea? What two provinces of Arabia are on the Red Sea coast? Name three towns in these provinces. The southern province of Arabia. The south-eastern.

11. From what country does the Persian Gulf divide Arabia? Persia is a table-land hemmed in by mountains,—name the mountains on the north. The table-land continues eastward as far as the Suliman mountains,—what two other countries are included in it?

12. What mountains separate Asia from Europe between the Caspian Sea and the Black Sea? South of the Black Sea is Turkey in Asia,—by what seas of Europe are its coasts washed? Name any mountain range here. At what point do the three continents of the Old World most nearly meet? Between what parallels does Asia lie? What countries are partly within the tropics? Where does the mainland fall under the equator?

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## SIBERIA.

Siberia is at least thirty times as large as Great Britain and Ireland, but its scanty population forms a miserable contrast to its enormous size. The inhabitants consist for the most part of Russians and Tartars, who have settled in the south or in the milder west, along the rivers, and along the roads which lead from one great river to another. In the northern and eastern districts, the settlements are almost entirely confined to the river banks, so that the enormous forest lands and the interminable swampy tundras of the coast are either uninhabited altogether, or are visited only by the huntsman, the gold-digger, and the wandering savage.

By way of peopling these vast solitudes, Russia sends an annual troop of unwilling emigrants across the Urals to the east. Sometimes celebrated personages are doomed to follow this melancholy path. Thus, the famous Prince Mentschikoff, who for years had ruled the vast Russian empire under Peter the Great, was sent hither in a covered cart, and in the dress of a peasant, doomed to perpetual exile. His wife died of the hardships of the way; his children were seized with small-pox: misfortunes fell thick upon him; and yet he lived to consider his cruel exile a blessing, for it led him to the knowledge of God; and to this day his memory is revered as that of a saint amongst the people of this inhospitable land.

In this century, many a political exile has been doomed to wander to Siberia, and to draw out his wretched life amid such sufferings as are described in the charming tale of 'The Exiles of Siberia.' Most of the Siberian exiles are, however, common criminals, such as in our country would be hanged or transported; and, certainly,

their case is by no means a hard one. Murderers and burglars are sent to the mines, to labour thenceforth in miserable gangs without hope or change; but for the rest, it is said that every exile receives a piece of land and the means of working it. He is closely watched, and, if he does well, is allowed to prosper in the new land; but any trespass leads him to the dismal mines from which there is no escape. Thus, the vast plain of Siberia is used by the Russian government as a huge penitentiary: every week sees a transport of about 300 of these exiles pass through Tobolsk, and the annual number of exiles amounts to about 12,000.

All travellers unite in the praise of the free Siberian peasant. "As soon as one crosses the Ural, one is surprised by the extreme friendliness and good nature of the inhabitants, as much as by the rich vegetation, the well-cultivated fields, and the excellent state of the roads in the southern part of the government of Tobolsk."

Besides agriculture, mining, fishing, and hunting, the carriage of merchandise is one of the chief occupations of the Siberians, and probably, in proportion to the population, no other country employs so large a number of waggoners and carriers. The enormous masses of copper, lead, iron, and silver, produced by the Altai mountains, have to be conveyed from an immense distance to the Russian markets. The gold from the East Siberian diggings is indeed easier to transport, but the provisions required by the thousands of workmen employed during the summer in working the sands for gold, have to be brought to them, frequently from a distance of many hundreds of miles.

The millions of furs, from that of the squirrel to that of the bear, have likewise to be carried great distances;

and, lastly, the highly important caravan trade with China conveys thousands of bales of tea to Irbit. Siberia has indeed many navigable rivers, but a glance at the map shows at once that they are of little use for commerce. They all flow northwards into a sea which is for ever closed to navigation, and are themselves ice-bound during the greater part of the year.

On some of the larger rivers, steamboats have been introduced; but there can be no doubt that, for many a year to come, the cart, the sledge, and the pack-horse will be the chief means of transport in a country exposed to all the rigours of an Arctic winter.

The boundless woods of Siberia harbour a number of fur-bearing animals whose skins form one of the chief products of the country; of these, the rich brown fur of the sable is one of the most valuable, and the chase in the snow-laden forests is attended with many hardships and dangers. For three or four months together do the hunters dwell in snow-huts raised in the solitary forest; and perhaps, after all their peril, they do not get skins enough to pay their expenses.

In former times the ermine was one of the most valuable fur-bearing animals of the Siberian woods, but the skins do not fetch a large price now. The colour of this little animal, which is reddish brown in summer, becomes milk-white during the winter, with the exception of the tip of the tail which always remains black. The glossy, jet-black, soft, thick fur of the sea-otter is the most valuable of all the Russian skins; next ranks the skin of the black fox. But, though a thousand of its skins are worth no more than one skin of the sea-otter, the little grey squirrel, whose skins are exported by the million, really plays the most important part in the Siberian fur-trade.



About thirty years ago, furs were the chief export article of Siberia to China, European Russia, and Western Europe; but since then, the discovery of its rich deposits has made gold its most important produce. The precious metal is found on the western slopes of the Ural chain and in West Siberia; but the most productive diggings are in East Siberia, where they give occupation to many thousands of workmen, and riches to a few lucky finders.

Of the difficulties which await the gold-searchers, some idea may be formed on considering that the whole of the gold-bearing region, which far surpasses in size most European kingdoms, consists of one vast forest. Yet men become fabulously rich here. The small town of Krasnojarsk, romantically situated on the Yenisei, is the chief seat of the rich miners. Here may be seen the choicest toilettes, the most showy equipages, and champagne (which in Siberia costs at least 1*l.* a bottle) is the daily beverage of the gold aristocracy. The Ural is less rich in gold than the Yenisei district, but is richer in copper and iron, and, above all, in platina, and the mines here are worked on a colossal scale.

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#### KAMTCHATKA.

The peninsula of Kamtchatka, though numbering no more than 6000 or 7000 inhabitants, on a surface equalling Great Britain in extent, might easily maintain a far greater number. The climate is much more temperate than that of the interior of Siberia, being neither so excessively cold in winter, nor so intensely hot in summer; and though the frequent fogs and rains prevent the cultivation of corn, the humid air produces green

pastures, so rich that the grass can be cut three times during the short summer.

The coast is bare of trees, as the cold winds check their growth; but inland, there are endless forests well stocked with sables and squirrels.

Then, as for the fisheries, no country in the world has fisheries to equal them. In spring the salmon ascend the rivers in such amazing numbers, that on plunging a dart into the stream, one is almost sure to strike a fish.

As the waters contain such an incredible multitude of fishes, we cannot wonder that the rocky coasts of the peninsula swarm with sea-fowl, whose breeding and roosting places are densely peopled.

Thus the population of Kamtchatka is quite out of proportion to the riches of its pastures and waters. Its scanty inhabitants are, moreover, settled on a few spots along the chief rivers and bays, so that almost the whole peninsula is nothing but an uninhabited wilderness.

The Kamtchatkans—a short, broad-shouldered, brown-complexioned folk—are remarkably healthy. Many of them live till they are seventy or eighty, and they are able to work until their death. Their hair seldom turns grey before their sixtieth year, and even the oldest men have a firm and elastic step.\*

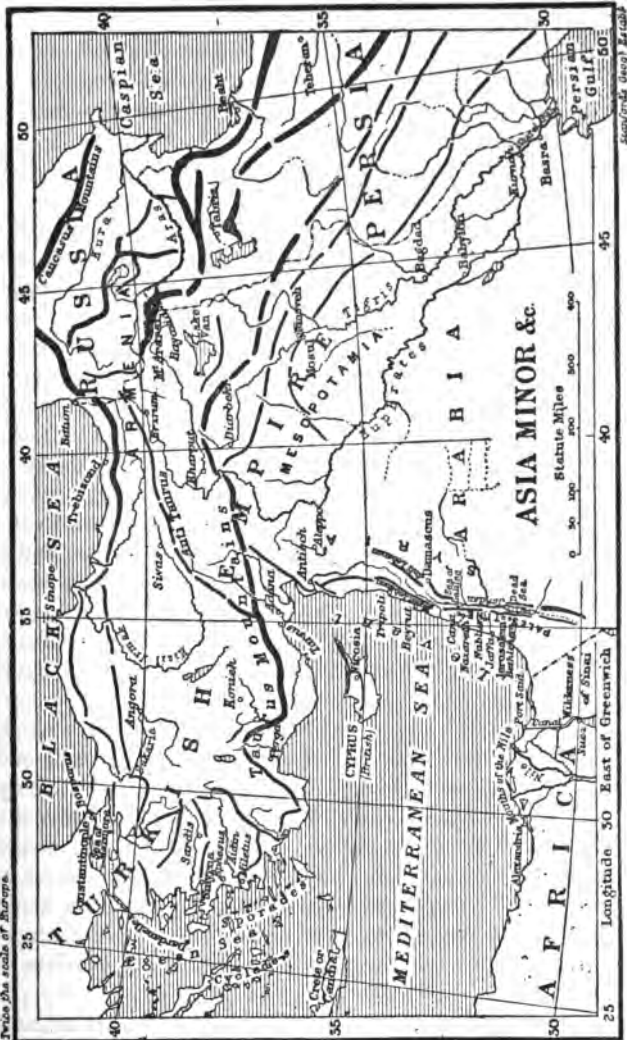
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\* From 'The Polar World,' by Dr. G. Hartwig.

## TURKEY IN ASIA.

No region of the world is more full of interest than the group of Asiatic countries under Turkish rule, and included under the name of "Turkey in Asia." Here is the Euphrates, which is said to have watered Paradise: here, upon Mount Ararat, the ark of Noah rested while the world was adrowning: here are the Mesopotamian plains over which Abram wandered, the river which the Hebrew crossed, and the Promised Land which became the inheritance of his seed: here is the Sinaitic wilderness, up and down which, for forty years, rebellious Israel was condemned to wander; and Sinai, that awful mountain, whereon Moses was hidden for forty days whilst he received the law: here are the site of Nineveh, and the ruins of Babylon—the two mighty cities of the ancient world, the centres of the two vast empires which, in their turns, spread over the Mesopotamian plains: here, on the fair isle of Cyprus, and round the isles of the Ægean, which fringe the shores of Asia Minor, gather a hundred tales—mere fairy tales to us—of the doings of gods and nymphs. Here, included in this Turkish territory, on the long narrow strip of Arabia which skirts the Red Sea, are the two sacred cities of the Moslems, Mecca and Medina, the birth-place and the burial-place of Mohammed, the mere sight of which secures, according to Mohammedan belief, a thousand years of paradise to even the unbeliever. Here are Bethlehem and Nazareth and Jerusalem, the Sea of Galilee and the river Jordan, sacred names, dear to

Twice the scale of Europe.



Scale of Statute Miles

the heart of Christendom. Here is Antioch, where the Christians first bore the name of their Chief; and here are Tarsus, Ephesus, Perga, and a dozen other names which occur in the journeyings of St. Paul, that Jew of Tarsus who became the great Apostle and Christian missionary to the Gentile world.

This land, the early home of the human race, and the scene of so many great events in history, has been, for a long period, slowly falling into decay under a corrupt government; though its situation, in the very centre of the Old World, and communicating by water with Europe, Asia, and Africa, its delicious climate, its numerous harbours, and extensive seaboard, should make it one of the most prosperous states of the world. But the Turks are the rulers of the country, and the Turks of the towns are debased and corrupt; those in office caring for their own ease and their own gains, to the utter neglect and, often, oppression of the people under their rule. The country is very thinly peopled, there being only about twenty-nine souls to a square mile; and of these, not more than one-fourth are pure Turks; these are settled for the most part in the towns of Asia Minor.

The settled home of the Armenians is the plateau country round Lake Van; but, as the bankers and money-lenders of the empire, they are scattered freely in all the cities and towns, and, indeed, over the whole of Southern Asia. They are a clever, active people, who find it much to their advantage to spread themselves abroad and monopolise the trade of other nations, and not more than one-seventh of the population of the province of Armenia consists of Armenians.

The Kurds, a pastoral people, wild and warlike, and

famous horsemen, dwell in the mountain valleys and glens to the south of Lake Van, and are a terror to their more peaceful neighbours.

The Arabs are as numerous as the Turks themselves, and still wander with their countless flocks of sheep and camels over the great Mesopotamian plain as they have done since the beginning of history. They trade in horses and wool, and are but nominally under the Turkish government, recognising only the authority of their sheikhs.

The Greeks are settled in large numbers on the islands and shores of the *Ægean*; but, as merchants and handicraftsmen, they are to be found scattered all over Asia Minor. They are the best educated and most civilised of all the races in Asiatic Turkey, but they have not a high character for integrity. Besides these, there are the Jews, acute traders and money-lenders, who do not number more than 200,000; and a scattered population of gipsies and negroes. As these various races hate one another with more or less violence, the government of the country is no easy task. More than three-fourths of the population are Mohammedans; the rest, about 3,000,000, are nominally Christians, including Greeks, Armenians, Europeans, and Syrians; but there is as little fellowship between the various Christian sects, Greek and Latin, Protestant and Catholic, as there is between the Christians and the Mohammedans.

Agriculture is much neglected, though the agricultural Turks are described as a fine race, every way superior to the dwellers in towns. The manufactures and trades are, as we have said, for the most part in the hands of the Armenians, Greeks, and Jews. Cloths of silk, cotton, and wool are manufactured in many

places, and Turkey has long been famous for its dyes, both for cloth and leather. The interior is so insecure, that all internal trade is carried on by means of caravans; and all the foreign trade is in the hands of Europeans.

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### Part II.

Turkey in Asia consists of a mountainous region, a hilly region, and a broad plain. The mountainous region includes the peninsula of Asia Minor and the other northern provinces which lie within the same parallels, that is, Armenia and Kurdistan.

The whole of this division is a great plateau, hemmed in and crossed by lofty mountain ranges, the highest summit of which is Mount Ararat, an extinct volcano, fully 17,000 feet in height.

Running south-westward from Ararat are the Taurus, with the Anti-Taurus range, and innumerable spurs and lateral ranges which overspread the whole country, making it not unlike the highlands of Scotland both in its climate and its pine woods.

But it is not for these "savage wilds" that the lovely verdure and fertility of Asia Minor have passed into a proverb: the mountain valleys and the lowlands which skirt the sea are very "gardens of the Lord," where are whole forests of olive and pomegranate, where apricot and peach, grape and fig, cherry and pear grow wild, and where the garden flowers of Europe deck the meadows and sweeten the air.

The whole of the plateau of Asia Minor bears evidence of volcanic action; the south-west portion is covered with volcanic cones, and it is here we find a

cluster of salt-water lakes, with no outlet to the sea, surrounded by salt marshes.

Lake Van is the largest lake of the country; it lies in a hollow of the mountains more than 5000 feet above the sea-level. It has no outlet; its waters are salt, but clear and blue like the sea, and it abounds with fish and waterfowl.

All the rest of Turkey in Asia, with the exception of the maritime region of Syria, is a vast alluvial plain, drained by the Euphrates—"the great river," and the Tigris; the plain round the upper courses of the rivers being known as Mesopotamia, that round their lower courses, as Babylonia. The great plains are scorched and bare in summer, but the winters are mild, and over the greater part of the desert, which is broken up by oases, there are many pools of rain water, although there are no streams, and pasturage for camels and sheep is spread pretty widely. In ancient times the whole of these vast plains was made wonderfully fertile—able to support an immense population—by means of artificial channels led from the two great rivers; but the groves of dates and olives, the vineyards, cornfields and gardens, which in the old days covered the rich plain, are now to be found only along the river banks.

Both the Euphrates and the Tigris rise in the snow-capped mountains of Armenia, and both overflow their banks at the melting of the snows.

At Bagdad, the two great rivers of the plains approach to within twenty miles of each other; then, after making a wide sweep to the east, the Tigris joins the Euphrates at Kurnah, and the united rivers—under the name of Shat el Arab—flow for 120 miles in a broad full stream with flat marshy banks to the Persian Gulf. Before its junction with the Tigris, the Euphrates flows



through the only country in the world where corn is indigenous, that is, native to the soil.

The third, westerly, division of Asiatic Turkey, including Syria, Palestine, and the Arabian provinces of the Hedjaz and Yemen, is really a long range of sea-bordering hills and mountains and valleys. The principal range is Mount Lebanon, with the two parallel ranges of Libanus and Anti-Libanus. The Lebanon gives rise to the famous Jordan of Scripture, which, alone of all the rivers in the world, flows, for the most part, at a level below that of the ocean, so strangely sunken is its valley. Oranges and grapes, tobacco, madder, the mulberry and cotton, are grown in most of the mountain valleys of the west.

Turkey in Asia has a great many considerable towns, though only two, Smyrna and Damascus, have a population of over 100,000. Smyrna, with a capital harbour and two railways, is the great trading place of the Levant, and is, besides, beautiful for situation, and blest with a delightful climate; the great trade of Smyrna is in dried fruit.

Besides Smyrna, the chief towns of Asia Minor are, the ports of Trebizond and Sinope on the Black Sea, Tarsus and Adana on the south coast, and Konieh and Angora in the interior. Angora is famous for the long silky hair of its cats and goats. Ephesus and Sardis, once great cities and of Bible interest, are now scenes of ruin and decay.

Erzroum, the capital of Armenia, is a large town, famous for its manufacture of copper kettles and pans.

Bussorah on the estuary of the two rivers, and Bagdad on the Tigris, are the two great cities of the plains; the latter is a well-known starting place for caravans.

Damascus, Aleppo, and Jerusalem are the three principal towns of Syria. Beyrout, delightfully placed, is the port of Damascus; Jaffa, the ancient Joppa, that of Jerusalem. Tripoli is also a famous port.

The countless islands of the Ægean are nearly all lovely, fertile, and full of interest. Patmos, a barren island, is famous as the place of St. John's banishment, and where he received the Revelation. Cyprus is a rich and fertile island, with a population of Greek-speaking Christians, for the most part. The women of the island are famous for their beauty. It contains many ruined towns and fever-breeding marshes, but drainage and tillage would restore it to its ancient fertility. It is, for the present, in the possession of Great Britain.

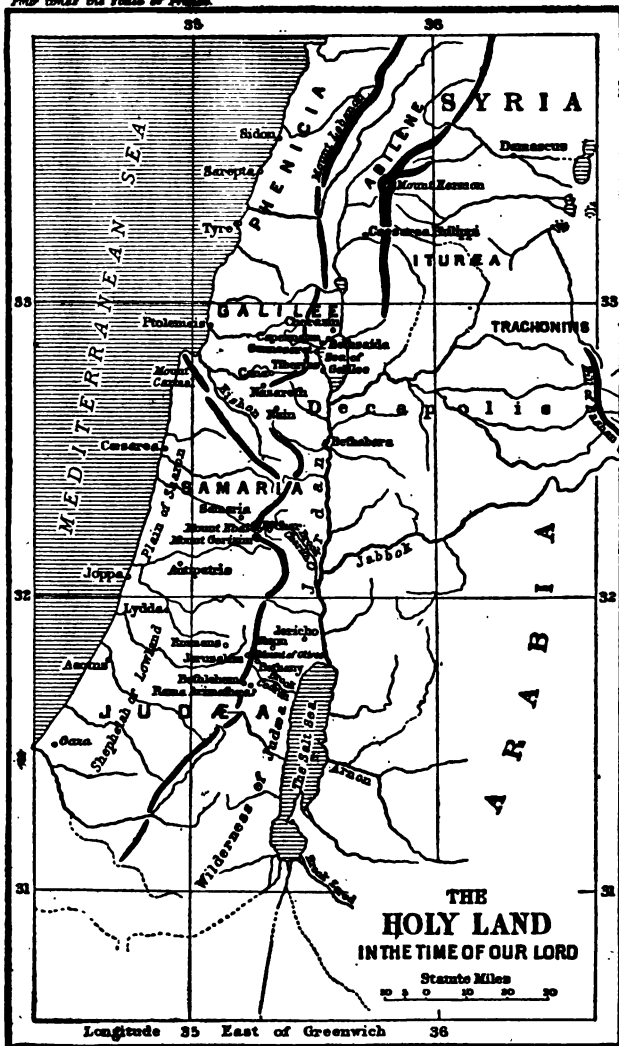
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#### THE HOLY LAND.

The Holy Land is but a strip of country about the size of Wales, barely 40 miles in breadth, and about 140 in length. It is almost as completely isolated as if it were indeed an island, having the great masses of the Lebanon on the north, desert on the south, the Great Sea on the west, and on the east, the tremendous ravine of the Jordan valley.

It is a mountainous country; indeed the whole of central Palestine consists of lofty uplands, sinking into the fertile plain of Sharon on the west, and into the deep Jordan valley on the east. Small as the country really is, it seems even smaller to the traveller, who, from many a summit in the central highlands, may look down upon the green dip of the Jordan valley on the one hand, and upon the gleaming sea on the

Four times the scale of Roman



Stanford's Geog. Engh

other, may see from a single point the Lake of Galilee, the long ridge of Carmel, and the sand-hills of Jaffa, the ancient Joppa, the sea-port of Jerusalem.

The features of western Yorkshire give one a very fair idea of the landscape of Palestine; for Palestine, like the Yorkshire moors, is a great limestone tract; there, as in Yorkshire, the mountain ridges are often long, grey, and bare, like huge ramparts, with deep glens between them, where are the beds of the brooks. But in Yorkshire the brooks flow all the year through, and the valleys are always green, while in the Holy Land the rivers and brooks are, for fully half the year, broad dry lanes of hot white or grey stones. Many parts of Palestine are completely honeycombed with the huge deep caverns, reaching far into the heart of the earth, so often mentioned in the Bible, and used by the Hebrews as burial places for the dead, shelters for the outcast, and hiding places for men pursued by their enemies. Such caverns are common enough in Yorkshire. Again, those who have seen the river Aire break out, a broad full stream, from the foot of a vast face of limestone rock, can form some idea of the glorious fountains of Palestine, "where a great body of the clearest water wells silently but swiftly out from deep blue recesses worn in the foot of a low cliff of limestone rock,"—springs at which the patriarchs watered their flocks, round which the Hebrew women have gathered for centuries to draw water for their household uses.

Few countries in the world are more monotonous and bare than the highlands of Judea during the greater part of the year. Even these barren grey rocks show some green freshness in the spring, but in summer and autumn the look of the whole country from Hebron up

to Bethel is very dreary and desolate. The valleys are, it is true, planted with figs, or olives, or corn ; but even the cultivated fields look neglected, and the grey villages, always on the top or near the top of the hills, are forlorn and dreary looking, with flat roofs and windowless walls. No doubt the aspect of the country must have been very different in the ancient days, when the land had a teeming population, and the numberless ruined cities which crown the hill-tops were full of cheerful life.

Jerusalem, beautiful for situation, a city set amongst hills, stands in the midst of these dreary uplands ; it is a good sized walled city, but is a disappointing, while a deeply interesting, place to the Christian visitor who comes here with the vain hope of identifying the scenes of the Bible narratives. The Mosque of Omar is the principal building in the city, once famous for the temple of Solomon ; and the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, which should attract the Christian, has little to support the claim it makes to mark the burial place of Christ.

"In the Holy City, your hotel is a monastery, your rooms are cells, the landlord is a stately abbot, and the waiters are hooded monks. If you walk out of the town, you find yourself on the Mount of Olives, or in the Valley of Jehoshaphat, or on the Hill of Evil Counsel. If you mount your horse, and extend your rambles, you will be guided to the wilderness of St. John, or the birth-place of our Saviour. The village of Bethlehem lies prettily couched on the slope of a hill. Its sanctuary is a subterranean grotto, where lies the low slab of stone whereon the infant Jesus is said to have been laid."

The low coast plain, called the Plain of Sharon in its

northern part, and Shephelah, or "Lowland," in its southern, is wonderfully fertile; the "Lowland" is now, as when the Philistines possessed it, an enormous cornfield; an ocean of wheat stretches from the hill country to the sands of the sea-shore, without even a break, hardly even a single olive tree.

On the eastern side, the hill country drops into the valley of the Jordan, an extraordinary ravine, reaching through the whole length of Palestine, and with a width of from five to twelve miles. It is perhaps the lowest great valley in the world, dropping in the Dead Sea basin to more than 2500 feet below the level of the ocean. So low does this long valley lie that the vine and the olive of southern France here give place to the palms of the tropics: Jericho, "the city of palms," lies in this hot and relaxing valley. The Jordan, the one real river of Palestine, is of no use at all for navigation, but, unlike the other brooks and rivers of the country, it carries water all the year through.

Dreary and arid as much of southern Palestine is, the north, the Galilee of the Gospels, is a beautiful and romantic region, not unlike our own "Lake Country." Here is the Sea of Galilee, which, "less stern than Wastwater, less fair than gentle Windermere, has still the winning ways of an English lake." The mountains gather round the sea of Galilee, and woods clothe their slopes, and the flowers!—it is impossible for the English reader to imagine anything like the glowing beauty and abundance of the flowers that burst into sudden bloom with the spring, spreading a bright mantle over the bare earth, not only here in Galilee, but all over the land. Of these, none is more abundant or more beautiful than the oleander, which lines the

banks of the streams profusely with its delicate sweet-scented pink blossoms.

In this delightful mountain region is Nazareth, a small town in a broad valley at the summit of a group of mountains. The population is now between 4000 and 5000, and it can never have varied much. The houses show nothing but square walls without windows, but they are in the midst of vines and fig trees. The gardens are fresh and green; the people amiable and cheerful, and the women are noted for their beauty. From the town itself little view is to be had; but ascend to the top of any of the hills which surround it, and you see Carmel, and Tabor, the hills of Gilboa, the Jordan valley and the sea, a view embracing a great part of the country.

"The saddest country in the world is, perhaps, the region round about Jerusalem. Galilee, on the contrary, is a very green, shady, smiling district. During the two months of March and April, the country forms a carpet of flowers of an incomparable variety of colours. The animals are small and extremely gentle: delicate and lively turtle doves, blue-birds so light that they rest on a blade of grass without bending it, crested larks which venture almost under the feet of the traveller, little river tortoises with mild and lively eyes, storks with grave and modest mien, which allow man to come quite near them. In no country in the world do the mountains spread themselves out more gracefully, or inspire higher thoughts.

"This beautiful country has now become sad and gloomy through the ever-impoverishing influence of Islamism. But still everything which man cannot destroy breathes an air of freedom, mildness, and tenderness, and at the time of Jesus it overflowed with

prosperity. The Galileans were considered energetic, brave, and laborious. If we except Tiberias, built in honour of Tiberius in the Roman style, Galilee had no large towns. The country was, nevertheless, well peopled, covered with small towns and large villages, and cultivated in all parts with skill. The country abounded in fresh streams and in fruits; the large farms were shaded with vines and fig trees; the gardens were filled with trees bearing apples, walnuts, and pomegranates. The country is still fertile and lovely; but the towns have decayed, and only by means of a ruined fragment here and there is it possible to fix the sites of the well-known cities of the Gospels."

Nowhere in the world is a more motley population. Here are Jews, Turks, Syrians, Arabs, Greek, Latin, and Armenian Christians, Maronites, and Druses. All the high posts are filled by Turks, while Greeks, Armenians, and Jews are the interpreters, bankers, and traders.

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#### DAMASCUS.

"This 'holy' Damascus, this 'earthly paradise' of the Prophet (Mohammed), so fair to the eyes, that he dared not trust himself to tarry in her blissful shade—she is a city of hidden palaces, of copses, and gardens, and fountains, and bubbling streams. The juice of her life is the gushing and ice-cold torrent that tumbles from the snowy sides of Anti-Lebanon. Close along on this river's edge, through seven sweet miles of rustling boughs and deepest shade, the city spreads out her whole length.

"The chief places of public amusement, or rather of public relaxation, are the baths and the great café.



This last is frequented at night by most of the wealthy men of the city, and by many of the humbler sort; it consists of a number of sheds, built in a labyrinth of running streams—streams so broken and headlong in their course, that they foam and roar on every side. The place is lit up in the simplest manner by numbers of small, pale lamps, strung upon loose cords, and so suspended from branch to branch that the light leaps and flashes brightly as it falls upon the troubled waters. All around, and chiefly upon the very edge of the torrent, groups of people are tranquilly seated. They drink coffee, and inhale the cold fumes of the narguilé (water-pipe); they talk rather gently the one to the other, or else are silent. A father will sometimes have two or three of his boys around him, but the joyousness of an Oriental child is all of the sober sort, and never disturbs the reigning calm of the land.

"It has been generally understood, I believe, that the houses of Damascus are more sumptuous than those of any other city in the East. Every rich man's house stands detached from its neighbour at the side of a garden. The lofty rooms are adorned with a rich inlaying of many colours, and illuminated writing on the walls. The floors are of marble. One side is generally laid open to a quadrangle, and in the centre of this is the dancing jet of a fountain. There is no furniture that can interfere with the cool, palace-like emptiness of the apartments. A divan, that is, a low and doubly broad sofa, runs round the walls; a few Persian carpets, or rather mats, are sometimes thrown about near the divan; and except these, there is nothing to obstruct the welcome air.

"But its gardens are the delight—the delight and the pride of Damascus; they are not the formal par-

terres which you might expect from Oriental taste; rather they bring back to your mind the memory of some dark old shrubbery at home. High, high above your head, and on every side, all down to the ground, the thicket is hemmed in, and choked, by the inter-lacing boughs that droop with the weight of roses, and load the slow air with their damask breath. There are no other flowers."\*

### Questions on the Map of Asia Minor.

1. Name the four seas which wash the coasts of the western peninsula. Name three seaport towns on the Black Sea. Four towns on, or near, the *Ægean*. Describe the west coast of the peninsula. Name two clusters of islands in the *Ægean*. Name the two straits which separate Turkey in Europe from Turkey in Asia.

2. Name two large islands in the Mediterranean. Which of these is British? Its chief town. Two or three towns on the northern shores of the Mediterranean. What name does the eastern end of the Mediterranean bear?

3. What memorable land is in the south-western corner of Syria? How is Palestine bounded on the south? Name half-a-dozen towns in the Holy Land. What river drains the country? Name a lake in its course. The lake into which it discharges its waters. Two mountain ranges of Syria, to the north of Palestine. A famous Syrian city at the foot of the Anti-Lebanon. Three Syrian seaports of the Levant. What country lies to the south of Syria?

4. What is the low plain drained by the Tigris and Euphrates called? What famous cities of antiquity stood in this plain? On which river are the remains of each of these cities? The two rivers unite before they fall into the Persian Gulf,—what name is given to this lower portion of their course? Where else do the rivers approach each other in their course? Name any towns marked in your map on either river.

5. Describe generally the position of the mountains of Asia Minor. Name the southern coast range. The range which branches from it to the north-east. Into what country are these mountain ranges continued? A famous mountain on the borders of Persia.

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\* 'Eothen.'

A lake in this mountainous district. Two or three inland towns west of the Anti-Taurus. The longest river of the peninsula. Name the mountainous province in the north-east. What two empires is it divided between? Between the Caucasus mountains and Mount Ararat the lands belong to —? By what rivers is this mountainous region drained?

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### ARABIA.

All round the coast of Arabia there is a strip of sandy desert, terribly hot and dry, sometimes only a mile in width, sometimes as much as thirty miles: the Tehama, as this desert tract is called, is everywhere a dry and burning plain, the sandy soil incrustated with salt. The centre of Arabia is a high plateau, or a succession of high plateaus, and the mountain chains which back the Tehama are simply the skirts of the interior table-lands. Upon the Red Sea side, these mountains reach a height of from 5000 to 6000 feet. Here, in this mountain tract, are watered plains and high valleys, verdant and delicious; here are groves and orchards, and the precious date-palm, and coffee thrives upon the slopes of the mountains.

Beyond the mountains, there is desert in the north, and desert in the south—two vast plateaus of sand divided from each other by the higher plateau of Nejd, the central table-land.

The northern desert extends from the province of Hejaz to the shores of the Persian Gulf. In some parts, a small herbaceous plant, called *samh*, grows wild, and the reddish seed of this plant furnishes the chief food of the Bedouin. Over this desert the simoom blows during the summer heats: it carries no sand or dust with it, but the heavens become dark as

the stifling blast, with the heat as of red-hot iron, passes over the waste. In this northern desert lies the delightful oasis of Jowf, some sixty miles long by ten or twelve broad, containing many villages, where every house stands in its own orchard, amidst fig-trees and vines, apricots and peaches.

The Nejd is the central plateau; it is dry, rocky, and barren, shut in by hills, and crossed by hill ranges, having scarcely any water, and, altogether, one of the most desolate parts of Arabia. Yet the Nejd is a settled country whose people have fixed dwelling-places, and are under the rule of a strong government. The Wahabite empire appears to extend in the present day over the greater part of Central Arabia, and the capital, Riadh, is said to be a beautiful town, in the midst of gardens, with some 30,000 inhabitants.

How is it possible for a nation to find subsistence on this rocky and barren plateau? The fact is, that the Nejd is cut up by a perfect maze of valleys, at the bottom of which are roaring torrents during the rains, though the ravines are perfectly dry at other times: still, everywhere, and at all seasons, water is to be obtained at a depth of about twelve feet below the surface. In these valleys the people plant their towns and villages for the sake of shade and vegetation: they are careful husbandmen, and though water to irrigate their narrow patches of land must be raised from the deep wells at the cost of great labour and expense, they cultivate the date palm—the wealth of the Arab—corn, maize, millet, melons, pomegranates, peaches, grapes, figs, oranges, citrons, and a little cotton.

South and east of the settled land is the *Dahna*, an awful wilderness. This is the main sand-waste of Arabia: between Nejd and the Persian Gulf it has

been several times crossed by European travellers; but towards the south it appears to be untracked, an impenetrable waste of loose, reddish sand, without water or vegetation of any kind, extending south of the tropic line for a distance of 300 or 400 miles. The southern half of the Dahna is a blank upon the maps, marked by the name of Roba el-Khaly, "the deserted abode." Yet even here, says Lieutenant Burton, a well-known Arabian traveller, "I heard enough, from credible relators, to conclude that its horrid depths swarm with a large and half-starved population; that it abounds in wadys,\* valleys, gullies, and ravines, partially fertilised by intermittent torrents."

Many tribes dwell in the deserts belonging to the Bedouins, or wanderers, who occupy the open pastures of the central plain and the numerous small oases in the deserts. These must not be confounded with the Arabs, the settled inhabitants of the towns and villages, who are a fine race of men, handsome, courteous, well-built, law-abiding, devoted to trade, and, as to their faith, Moslems of the severest type. Though the Bedouin belongs to the same race, he is altogether an inferior being; the same wild herdsman that he was 3000 years ago, he is utterly lawless, shifty, untrustworthy; to him theft and even murder are light offences, and his life is a mere scramble for existence; yet, to him, no life is so lordly, so happy, as the free life of the desert.

Others besides the born sons of the desert find pleasure in this strange wilderness life; travellers say it is so unlike anything they have known before, that

\* Wady, the bed of a water-course; a torrent during the rains, a dry ravine at all other times.

the hardships of a desert journey are fully made up for by the excitement of novelty.

Mr. Warburton thus describes such an expedition :—  
“As long as you are journeying in the interior of the desert you have no particular point to make for as your resting-place. The endless sands yield nothing but small stunted shrubs; even these fail after the first two or three days, and from that time you pass through valleys dug out by the last week's storm, and the hills and the valleys are sand, sand, still sand, and only sand, and sand again. The earth is so samely, that you turn your eyes towards heaven; you look to the sun; he comes when you strike your tent in the early morning, and then, for the first hour of the day, as you move forward on your camel, he stands at your near side and makes you feel that the whole day's toil is before you. Then for a while, and a long while, you see him no more, for you are veiled and shrouded, and dare not look upon the greatness of his glory, but you know where he strides overhead by the touch of his flaming sword.

“No words are spoken, but your Arabs moan, your camels sigh, your skin glows, your shoulders ache, and for sights you see the pattern and the web of the silk that veils your eyes, and the glare of the outer light. Time labours on, and by-and-by the descending sun softly touches your right arm, and throws your lank shadow over the sand.

“Then begins your season of rest. The world about you is all your own, and there, where you will, you pitch your solitary tent; and there is no living thing to dispute your choice. When at last the spot had been fixed upon, and we came to a halt, one of the Arabs would touch the chest of my camel and utter at the same time a peculiar gurgling sound. The beast

instantly understood and obeyed the sign, and slowly sank under me, till she brought her body to a level with the ground, then gladly enough I alighted. The rest of the camels were unloaded and turned loose to browse upon the shrubs of the desert, where shrubs there were: or where these failed, to wait for the small quantity of food that was allowed them out of our stores.

"One day we fell in with a sheikh, the head of a family that actually dwells at no great distance from this part of the desert during nine months of the year. We stopped, and sat down and rested awhile, for the sake of a little talk. I discovered that this man and his family lived habitually for nine months in the year without touching or seeing either bread or water. The stunted herb growing at intervals through the sand in this part of the desert enables the camel mares to yield a little milk, and this furnishes the sole food and drink of their owner and his people. During the other three months (the hottest, I suppose) even this resource fails, and then the sheikh and his people are forced to pass into another district. The sheikh was not a good specimen of the effect produced by this way of living; he was very small, very spare, and sadly shrivelled—a poor, over-roasted snipe—a mere cinder of a man. I made him sit down by my side, and gave him a piece of bread and a cup of water from out of my goat-skin. This was not very tempting drink, for it had become rather muddy and red, and it tasted strongly of leather. The sheikh sipped it, drop by drop, with great delight, and rolled his eyes solemnly round between every draught as though the drink were quite heavenly."

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## Part II.

Fully a third of Arabia consists of this desolate irreclaimable desert: the reason is obvious; Arabia has no rivers; torrents course through the mountain valleys in the rainy season, but not a single stream in the whole land carries water all the year through.

The habitable part of Arabia is divided into States; Nejd, of which we have spoken, Oman in the south-east, Hadramaut in the south, and Yemen in the south-west.

Oman, a mountain country, about the size of England and Wales, is the richest district of Arabia; pleasant streams water the fertile valleys, and cocoa-nuts, dates, corn, sugar-cane, coffee, cotton, apricots, and peaches are cultivated. Lead and copper are mined, but not with much energy. Here are two seasons, each lasting about six months: in the hot season, the towns become like ovens, but during the rainy season, the north-west monsoon blows with great force. Muscat, the capital, is a large and fairly clean commercial town, with a population of 40,000.

Of Hadramaut, which stretches along the shores of the Arabian Sea between Oman on the east and Yemen on the west, very little is known: it appears to consist of a confused mass of hills, and to be occupied by Bedouin chiefs, who pasture their flocks of sheep, goats, and camels in the high valleys.

Aden, in the Gulf of Aden, between Hadramaut and Yemen, is a British possession and free port. Though it has a population of 30,000, it is utterly naked and barren: great reservoirs for rain-water have been built by the English, and fortifications, which make the place another Gibraltar.



Yemen, on the south-west, consists of a mountain region with lovely valleys, and of a strip of the burning and barren Tehama. On the latter, stands Mocha, long a famous port which gave name to the coffee of Arabia, which it exports (the best coffee, by-the-way, is grown in Abyssinia, and carried here for export): Mocha has now fallen into complete decay, and its trade has passed to Hodeida, further north. The mountain slopes are richly wooded, the valleys fertile and most lovely, deserving its ancient title of "Araby the blest." It is upon the higher mountain plains and upon their sloping sides that the coffee plantations are to be met with, and, amongst the coffee shrubs, are figs, plantains, orange, and citron trees. Sana, the capital, lies in a beautiful valley, amongst fountains and gardens; and here are two large palaces of the Imaum, or Sultan, of Yemen.

The Hejaz is by far the most important territory of Arabia. It is subject to the Sultan of Turkey, and every considerable town is garrisoned by his troops, and the roads are kept open by patrols of Turkish cavalry. The two chief cities are Mecca and Medina; the chief ports, Yembu and Jedda. Yembu is the port of Medina, and possesses a considerable import trade for the supply of its chief town; and many pilgrims to both the great sanctuaries disembark there. Jedda is the port of Mecca, and has a large and safe harbour, where English steamers call regularly: numbers of European merchants and agents reside here, and natives of every country under the sun may be seen in the crowded bay.

Mecca and Medina are the chief cities of El Hejaz, and both are sacred in the eyes of every follower of Mohammed, for in Mecca the Prophet was born, and in

Medina is his tomb. No infidel is allowed to profane with his tread these spots, hallowed by the steps of the Prophet; but certain adventurous Britons, disguised as pilgrims, have contrived to enter the walls—at the certain cost of their lives had they been discovered. Every year, the *haj*, or great yearly pilgrimage, draws many thousands of pilgrims hither from all parts of the Moslem world—from India, Arabia, Persia, Egypt, and Turkey.

Mr. Keane, one of the travellers who ventured within the holy cities, thus describes one of the numerous pilgrim caravans engaged in the *haj*:—

“There were seven hundred and thirty camels in our caravan, and these extended in a long line one behind the other for about three-quarters of a mile. These camels carried about nine hundred pilgrims with all their baggage. On both sides of this line walked a wretched company of perhaps one thousand or so of men, women, and children.

“Medina, when first sighted, may fairly be ranked as one of the loveliest of the beautiful cities of the world. As it first presents itself to the pilgrim’s delighted gaze, its tall snow-white walls and numerous gilded minarets, with the morning sun gleaming over them, and the broad green belt of cultivated ground encircling it,—as seen, I say, at such a time, by the wayworn pilgrim from Mecca, it is a fresh bright jewel, bounded by a vast grim barrenness of desert.

“Than Medina, I suppose that a more flourishing little city is not to be found anywhere in the East. It has a population of about 20,000 inhabitants, probably two-thirds Arab, the rest being Turks and a few foreigners from most other Mohammedan countries. The houses are nowhere dilapidated and neglected as

in Mecca; and, under its hot sun, the well-watered suburbs of Medina produce an endless variety of vegetables and fruits; and the dates!—not less than fifty varieties, each more delicious than the other, are cultivated in Medina.”

The Haram, which contains the tomb of the Prophet—a very plain oblong building—is, of course, the object of the pilgrims’ devotions; but we cannot attempt to describe the ablutions and prayers at this shrine, which are a part of the devotions of the world-famous *haj*.

Mecca is a fairly handsome but neglected looking town; the streets are unpaved, and frightfully dusty; no trees or gardens cheer the eye of the desert-worn pilgrim; there are no public buildings, excepting the famous Mosque; but the fact that, contrary to the practice in other Eastern towns, the windows here look out upon the streets, gives Mecca an air of some liveliness, at any rate during the *haj*. Within the Mosque is the Kaaba, and within the Kaaba is the sacred well which is said to cure all diseases, and the wonderful “black stone,” supposed to have been brought from heaven by the Archangel Gabriel. To kiss the “black stone,” to wash in the sacred well, these are the objects of the *haj*, having accomplished which, hundreds of weary pilgrims lie down to die on the floor of the Mosque; and all day long, men are employed to carry forth and bury the dead bodies of the blessed ones who have been happy enough to die—of the manifold fatigues of the journey—on this sacred spot.

At its northern end, the Red Sea divides into two gulfs—the Gulfs of Suez and Akaba—and between these is a small peninsula, and in this peninsula is the *wilderness of Sinai*, the desert in which the children of Israel wandered for forty years. It is a rugged moun-

tain wilderness, a succession of barren hills and more barren valleys, the only streams being found in the higher central tract; and here, in this rugged mountain mass, is the "Horeb" of the sacred writings, on one of the peaks of which Moses received the Law while the assembled tribes of Israel waited below.

The small, but flourishing town of Suez, at the head of the gulf of that name, is a great place of embarkation for the Mohammedan pilgrims from Egypt and the countries of Northern Africa on their way to the holy cities. It is the Red Sea terminus of the famous Suez Canal.

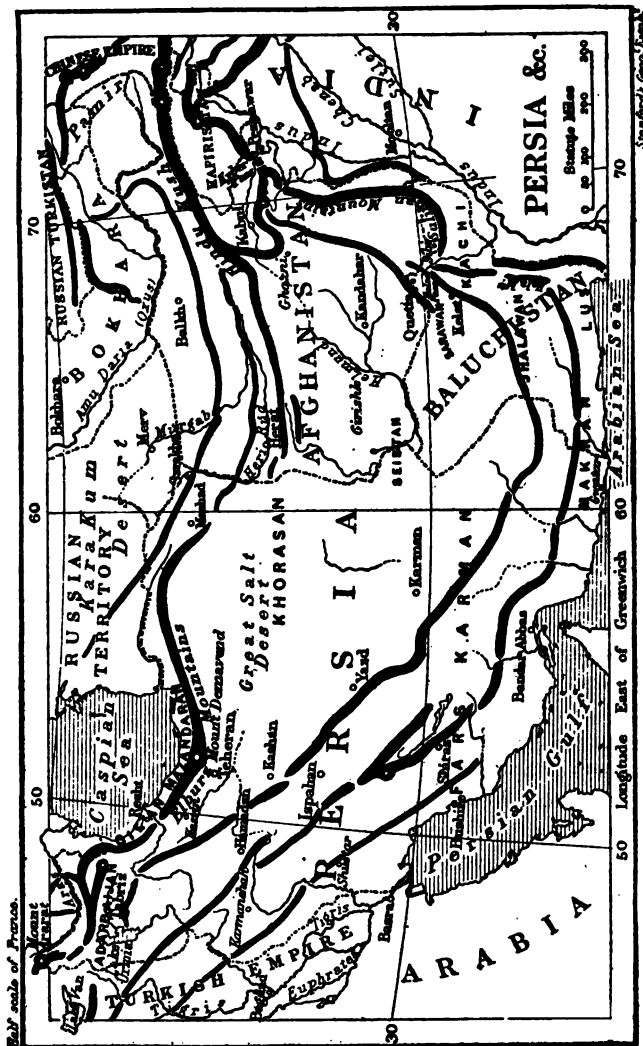
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## PERSIA.

WE are apt to think of Persia' as a land of nightingales and roses, of orchards and delightful flower-gardens; a land where peaches, plums, cherries, almonds—our choicest garden fruits—grow wild. It is true there are bowers of roses and groves of fruit-trees in the mountain valleys, which are watered by hundreds of rills, and are sweet with the perfume of many flowers. And there are many of these valleys, for Persia is skirted by mountain ranges on every side but the east, and generally several of these ranges are parallel with one another, so that the mountain district often measures two hundred miles across. There is a low desert plain between the mountains and the Persian Gulf, and another low plain, very fertile but unhealthy, between the mountains and the Caspian; and this is nearly all which lies outside of the mountains.

Between these lowlands is the great plateau of Persia, which rises to from 2000 to 3000 feet above the sea; it is walled in on the north by the lofty range of the Elburz mountains, whose highest point, Mount Demavend (18,460 feet), is a volcano; and its southern margin is marked by several parallel ranges of which little is known as yet; but as some of the summits never lose their snowy caps when seen from long distances, it is probable that they are at least as high as the Elburz mountains.

Within this mountain girdle, what shall we find?



We climb a steep ascent until we reach a pass, one of the fair and fertile valleys we have spoken of, where the land spreads out, it may be, into a wide platform, and there are villages, and orchards, and pure streams. Then, up a mountain slope, and into another valley, with another and another mountain chain beyond—we must make a long journey through several passes, some of them at a great height, several thousand feet, above the sea-level, before we reach that which lies within the mountains.

We shall be wise not to hasten our journey; let us linger in the fruitful valleys, or among the black tents of the wandering shepherd tribes which we shall find on the mountain slopes.

You think, perhaps, that Central Persia, so difficult of access, surrounded thus by a body-guard of mountains, should be indeed a garden of roses and all delights. On the contrary, these high plains are for the most part barren and sandy wastes, scored and streaked with patches of green oases, where cultivation is possible only by means of artificial irrigation. Examine the map: you may see one or two straggling lines to mark water-ways, which appear to end nowhere; but in all the vast space enclosed by the mountains there is not a single river which reaches the sea; while the rivers flowing down the outer slopes of the plateau are few and of no value at all for navigation. The plains of Central Persia are dependent for irrigation on the uncertain streams which flow down inward from the mountains on the melting of the snows; and when both rain and snow are wanting on the mountains, there is famine in the plains.

In the north-western corner of the country is the large lake of Urumia, which is about the size of

Lancashire, and is another Dead Sea for the excessive saltiness of its waters.

In the greater part of these barren plains no rain ever falls. It is not surprising to see "Great Salt Desert" filling up the north-eastern corner of the map; a land which is without water cannot fail to be desert. This dreary waste stretches over thousands of square miles, and is, in some parts, coated with a thin crust of salt; indeed, the whole of Persia, excepting on the borders of the Caspian Sea and among the mountains, is dry and barren, and is more or less a desert.

Nevertheless, where the dry soil of Persia is supplied with water it is exceedingly fertile; the wheat it yields is as fine as any in the world; cotton, rice, sugar-cane, and tobacco are other large crops. The wines of Shiraz are celebrated in Eastern poetry; and mulberries are largely grown in the north to feed the silk-worms.

The coasts of the Gulf are burning, sandy solitudes, where little or no rain falls; and here the mountains bring no relief. These are awful mountains, high, hot, and barren, and the valleys between them are burning and barren, and rise like steps, six or seven of them, from the shores of the Persian Gulf to the table-land. On the east, as we have said, there is no mountain barrier, but the plateau is continued into the highlands of Baluchistan and Afghanistan.

The inhabitants of the table-land and of many of the mountain valleys are a wandering people called *Illyats*, pastoral tribes, each under its own chief, who dwell in tents, and live by keeping cattle and sheep. They belong for the most part to the Turkomans of the northern border, and to the Kurds and Arabs of the south-west. The climate of Persia is extreme, bitterly cold in the winter, and excessively hot in the summer:



in the cold winter months the Iliyats and their cattle find food and shelter on the low coast plains or in the valleys, while in summer they seek the cool mountain pastures. Their wealth consists of cattle, camels, horses—larger and handsomer, though less fleet, than those of Arabia, and celebrated as the finest in the East,—mares, cows, oxen, mules, asses, sheep, and goats. For the rest, they own their tents, carpets, bedding, cooking utensils, large caldrons in which they boil the *raughan*, a kind of liquid butter they make from the milk of their sheep, skins, wherein they shake their butter and sour their milk, and saddles and ornaments for their camels. It is extraordinary to hear of *carpets* among the possessions of people so little civilised; but the fact is the Iliyat women weave most of the beautiful so-called “Turkey carpets” sold in Europe.

The true *Persians* form the settled agriculturists, merchants, and artisans of the country: these live mostly in cities, if that name should be given to the squalid collections of mud tenements divided by narrow and filthy streets, which form a Persian town. The bazaars are, however, well worth seeing; here are beautiful embroidered silks and delicate muslins, rich velvets, porcelain, costly shawls manufactured from the long wool of a certain goat, jewelry, perfumes, sabres—all made by the Persians, who are a skilful and ingenious people. Their rich, thick silks, especially, are greatly prized.

The Persians are a gay, handsome people, fond of poetry and song, and extremely polite, but they are in ill-repute amongst Western nations in the matter of sincerity and truthfulness. They are, for the most part, Mohammedans, and the “Shah-in-Shah,” or king of kings, is absolute ruler, and master of the lives of his

subjects as far as he obeys the precepts of the Koran. The recent visit of the present Shah to England has created much interest in these Eastern people and their ways.

We will close our account with one or two Persian pictures from the pen of a traveller who recently crossed the country from the Caspian Sea to the Persian Gulf, by way of the dirty little port of Resht, by Tabriz—a busy trading town, Tehran the capital, Ispahan and Shiraz—both former capitals, and Bushire, the port of the south.\*

“The province of Ghilan, of which Resht is the chief town, must be one of the most fertile districts in the world; the country is a flat marsh, perennially manured with rank and rotting vegetation. Yet in places, the richly green lane through which we approached Resht might have been in Devonshire, save that at every turn we met some Persian, long-robed in blue, or yellow, or russet-brown, sometimes perched between the humps of a camel, sometimes upon the hinder extremity of a very good-looking donkey.”

“A few women are seen; we met one sitting astride on horseback, as all Eastern women ride. We believe them to be women, but we can see no part of them, not even a hand or an eye. They are shrouded from the head to the knees in a cotton or silk sheet of dark blue or black, the ‘chudder’ it is called, which passes over the head and is held with the hands round the body. Over the ‘chudder’ there is tied round the head a veil of white cotton or linen, in which, before the eyes, is a piece of open work about the size of a finger, which is their only look-out or ventilator. Every woman before going out of doors puts on a pair of loose trousers

\* ‘Through Persia by Caravan,’ A. Arnold.

of the same stuff as the 'chudder,' and thus her outdoor disguise is complete. Her own husband would not know her in the street. But the Persian ladies make up for this unsightly muffling out of doors, by wearing very short petticoats and very low-necked dresses, and very scanty clothing altogether within doors."

"We had a glass of tea in the Persian manner, that is, very weak, without milk and with an almost sickening quantity of sugar. Next morning, we passed through groves of olives quite unfenced, through a mud village, wealthy in splendid fruits. We bought a delicious melon for the value of twopence, English, and luscious grapes for less than a halfpenny a pound. . . .

"But now we had left behind the last pass of the Elburz chain; no more beauteous valleys, no more wooded slopes. We had risen above the level of the universal richness which belongs only to the provinces of Persia which border the Caspian Sea. Now our road lay through an arid country which was only green where artificial irrigation made an oasis. We had gained an elevation of about 7000 feet, and as the rising sun glowed upon the summits of the lower mountains of the Elburz chain the whole land seemed to be covered with hill-tops."

"Mazara, lying under the Elburz mountains, is a fair specimen of a Persian village. The earth is brown, the houses are brown, and crumbling into the dust of the plain from the mud of which they have been made. There is no street, no order in the arrangement of the huts, no provision whatever for drainage; and the houses are crowded together though the plain is so vast and barren."

"We rode to Kasvin, over the nearly flat plain which stretches far beyond Tehran, and which is about 4000 feet above the sea. The illusion of the mirage is nowhere more often seen than in Persia. For hours we seemed to be riding towards water, which we knew did not exist. It is terribly wearisome to ride over a plain so flat that, in the morning, one can see the goal of the evening—a ride in which nine hours of travelling bring no change of landscape."

"One looks in vain for the signs of a great city on approaching the capital of Persia. The plain is stony, nearly level, and utterly wearisome. There are strings of camels and droves of asses bearing daily food, firewood, and foreign produce into the city. No fine building presents a remarkable outline. At one or two points the sun's rays gleam upon the shining tiles of the dome of a mosque, but that is all. The city is of the colour and of the material of the plain. It is a city of mud in an oasis of plane trees. Within, one sees nothing but wide dusty spaces broken occasionally by a mud wall. Even the Shah's palace is tawdry and half ruinous. From one end of Persia to the other, this miserable condition of decay, dilapidation, and ruin is characteristic of all public buildings—the mosques, palaces, bridges—everything."

"We had heard much of Ispahan, and were dismayed at the wretchedness and ruin in the outskirts of the town—nothing to be seen that was not of mud. At last, we entered by a narrow gateway upon the grand avenue, which though itself a ruin, and in a city which is for the most part in ruins, remains the glory of Ispahan. Six rows of great plane trees overahadow as many roads, sloping towards the river. Here is the great mosque-school of Ispahan, with a dome of

beautiful tile-work, but ruinous, like everything else. The gay river of Ispahan is a stream with no outfall, which loses itself in the plains to the east of the city."

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#### CENTRAL ASIA.

In describing Persia, we mentioned that the centre of the country is occupied by a great table-land: this table-land stretches beyond the boundary of Persia, and its eastern half forms the two countries of Afghanistan and Baluchistan. The Suliman and Hala mountains form the eastern boundaries of the table-land, while the lofty Hindu Kush range is its northern wall. It is a poor country, consisting, for the most part, of wide deserts crossed by barren mountains, and by narrow and deep gorges. The inhabitants are fanatical Mohammedan tribes, brave and warlike, but ignorant, extremely ready to take offence, and having little love for foreigners.

Though the two barren countries of Afghanistan and Baluchistan are of little interest in themselves, they are of great importance in the political geography of Asia: at the present time, the two great Powers of the continent are Britain, in India, and Russia, in Northern and Central Asia: year by year, Russia is getting closer and closer to the Indian frontier; Britain, though not greatly extending her dominions, is defending them, keeping a jealous eye upon the movements of Russia, and strengthening her influence in the neutral ground which lies between her and her neighbour, that is, in the plateau lands of Afghanistan and Baluchistan.

Nature has made provision for the defence of British

territory in a great mountain range which shuts in the valley of the Indus on the west, where the passes are few and difficult, and where, indeed, only through the two great passes would it be possible to carry an army; these are the Bolan Pass, leading to Quetta in Baluchistan, and the Kyber Pass, leading to Kabul in Afghanistan.

Baluchistan consists of little but bare hill ridges and sandy deserts, frozen in the winter, and unbearably hot in the summer: a low strip of desert skirts the coast, which is one of the hottest regions of the world. Baluchistan has a single pleasant and fertile region—the well-watered mountain slopes of the north-east corner, descending to the valley of the Indus.

The Bolan Pass is a wild and narrow gorge, nearly sixty miles in length, and, in some places, shut in by wall-like cliffs, five and six hundred feet in height, and nearly meeting overhead, so that the road is darkened, and the passengers make their way upwards through a gorge infested by robbers, and so entirely shut in that there is no means of escape. This is one of the most formidable passes in the world; and, in 1839, it took a column of the British army six days to traverse it. It leads from the low plain of the Indus to the heights of the plateau.

Kelat is the mud-walled capital of Baluchistan.

Afghanistan, reaching northward to the Oxus, is a country larger than France. It is entirely mountainous, four-fifths of it being covered with mountain ranges and valleys, stretching from the great Pamir knot to the Persian half of the table-land. Between the Hindu-Kush and the Suliman mountains many high masses run out to the south-west, enclosing between them

many fertile, well-watered, and lovely valleys, as well as high, cold, treeless, pastoral table-lands. As a whole, this country of mountain and valley is well watered, the famous Oxus on the north, and the Kabul—upon which is the capital city of Kabul, in the midst of gardens and orchards—are the two largest rivers: the Kabul is a tributary of the Indus. Kandahar and Herat are the other important towns: Kandahar is the great trading town between Persia and India.

The Afghans proper, who are finely built, long-bearded men, style themselves Beni-Israel, or sons of Israel, claiming descent from Saul, and taking their name from his grandson Afghana; but their language shows them to be an Aryan people.

There are curious remains of antiquity scattered over Afghanistan, called *topes*: these are large mounds or barrows having an outer covering of stonework, and with small recesses or apartments in the centre of the building, containing caskets or vases of copper, brass, &c.: these topes appear to be monuments of the dead, like the British barrows, and the pyramids of Egypt.

“If a man could be transported at once from England to the Afghan country, he would be amazed at the wide and unfrequented deserts, and the mountains covered with perpetual snow. Even in the cultivated part of the country he would discover a wild assemblage of hills and wastes, unmarked by enclosures, not embellished by trees, and without canals or public roads. He would find the towns few, and far distant from each other, and would look in vain for inns. Yet he would sometimes be delighted with the fertility and populousness of particular plains and valleys, where he would see the productions of Europe mingled in profusion with those

of the torrid zone, and the land cultivated with an industry and judgment nowhere surpassed. He would see the inhabitants following their flocks in tents, or assembled in villages with walls of mud and terraced roofs. He would be struck at first with their high, and even harsh features, their sun-burnt countenances, their long beards, their loose garments, and their shaggy mantles of skins. He would find so little order and justice amongst them, that he would wonder how a nation could subsist in such disorder; yet he would admire their martial and lofty spirit, their hospitality, and their bold and simple manners." \*

The most difficult part of Central Asia to describe is the immense region called Turkestan. Eastern Turkestan is under the dominion of China: part of Western Turkestan belongs to the neighbouring State of Afghanistan: the rest has been divided into a number of free States, each with a ruler of its own, called a khan. We have spoken before of the steady advance of Russia towards the Indian frontier: the Khanates of Turkestan are the steps by which, one after one, she makes her way southwards. The petty rulers of these provinces have no forces wherewith to resist the vast armies of Russia: the tribes are too much at variance with one another to unite for defence: and, within a few years, the Khanates of Kokand, Bokhara—by far the richest and most populous State of Turkestan—and Khiva, have fallen under Russian influence, and are open to Russian troops.

The most important of the races inhabiting Turkestan are the Usbeks, a brave and clever pastoral people. The country is a desert, except along the banks of the rivers, and as far as channels from these have been led

\* Elphinstone's 'Account of the Kingdom of Kabul.'



for irrigation. The chief river is the Amu, the ancient Oxus, which is navigable for 600 miles from its mouth in the Sea of Aral; the Sir, or Sir-Daria (daria means river), is nearly as valuable.

We add two or three sketches from the pen of Captain Burnaby—a traveller who recently visited these regions.

“We were rapidly nearing Kasala. When we continued our journey we passed by some small salt lakes, which were thickly covered with ice. Far away in the distance lay the Sea of Aral. A salt breeze was blowing straight in our faces. It parched and dried up the skin, and, in spite of the cold weather, produced a state of feverishness. The tea which we drank had a strong saline flavour. In fact, the whole country in this district is impregnated with salt for miles around, and undoubtedly, at some not very remote date, has been covered by the sea.”

On the Kirghiz steppes:—“The aspect of the country now underwent an entire change. We had left all traces of civilisation behind us, and were regularly upon the steppes. Not the steppes as they are described to us in the summer months. Then hundreds of nomad tribes, like their forefathers of old, migrate from place to place, with their families, flocks, and herds. The dreary aspect of this vast flat expanse is relieved by picturesque kibitkas, or tents; and hundreds of horses, grazing on the rich grass, are a source of wealth to their Kirghiz owners.

“A large dining-table covered with nought but its white cloth is not a cheering sight. To describe the country for the next one hundred miles from Orsk, I need only extend the table-cover: for here, there, and everywhere was a dazzling, glaring sheet of white—a

picture of desolation which wearied by its utter loneliness, and at the same time appalled by its immensity."

"The mighty Oxus—the Oxus of Alexander—lay at my feet, its banks bound together by transparent ice; here it is, at least, half a mile broad, and is the boundary line separating the subjects of the Khan of Khiva from those who pay tribute to the Tzar."

"We were now fast nearing Khiva, which could just be seen in the distance, but was partly hid by a belt of tall, graceful trees. However, some richly painted minarets and high domes of coloured tiles could be seen towering above the leafy groves. Orchards, and avenues of mulberry trees, studded the landscape. I should say, as a mere guess, that there are about 35,000 human beings within the walls of Khiva. The streets are broad and clean, whilst the houses of the richer inhabitants are built of polished bricks, and coloured tiles relieved the dulness of the mud-built dwellings of the poor. There are nine schools, the largest containing 130 pupils, and they are all built with high, coloured domes. Presently we rode through a bazaar, shaded to keep the stall-keepers and their customers from the rays of the summer sun. We were followed by crowds of people, and the Khivans who accompanied me made way for us by using their whips on the shoulders of the people."\*

#### Questions on the Map of Persia, &c.

1. The map shows a great table-land with mountain-walls,—what three countries are included in the Persian table-land? The mountain-walls of the table-land overlook the frontiers of four great empires,—name them. Name three mountain ranges that form the

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\* 'Ride to Khiva.'

eastern wall of the table-land. Two passes which lead from the highlands into the low valley of the Indus. Four towns among these eastern mountains. A high steppe, the "roof of the world," which borders on the frontiers of the Chinese empire.

2. The northern mountain range of Persia. A summit of this range. A town near Mount Demavend. A town on the Caspian. A town amongst the mountains in the north-west corner. A lake near this town. Two seaports on the Persian Gulf. A town amongst the mountains behind Bushire. Where are Ispahan, Shustar, Kashan, and Karman? A great part of the plateau is a blank on the map,—why? What remark have you to make about the few river-courses on the map? What great valleys bound the plateau on the east and on the west?

3. What empire has its frontiers on the north of Persia? What great desert lies to the east of the Caspian Sea? Name a town (an oasis in fact) in this desert. What State is drained by the Amu Daria? Where does this river discharge its waters? What Russian State lies to the north of Bokhara?

4. Name the four principal towns of Afghanistan (large type) What town commands the Bolan Pass? What town commands the Kyber Pass? Upon what river does Kandahar stand? What great mountain range sends a spur across Afghanistan? What mountains form its eastern boundary?

5. Has Baluchistan any seaboard? Upon what sea? Upon what empire is its eastern frontier? What mountains form its eastern boundary? Name the chief town of Baluchistan.

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## OUR INDIAN EMPIRE.

We see by the map that much of India is within the tropics; and, throughout the country, the year is divided, as in all tropical lands, into a *wet* and a *dry* season. The hot season begins about March; then the scorching rays of the sun destroy every green thing; never a cloud deadens the glare, unless it be a cloud of dust, which the hot, dry wind has raised from the parched earth; everything you touch is hot,—wood, iron, stone. The heated air expands, rises, and, “there is not a breath of air!” is the general moan. But no sooner has heated air risen to higher regions from any spot on the earth’s surface, than cool winds rush forward to take its place, and about the beginning of June vapour-laden winds from the south-west are drawn in—the winds of the south-west *monsoon*. Heavy clouds roll up from the Indian Ocean, becoming denser as they near the land, over which they pass with strong gusts of wind, followed by incessant thunder-claps, such thunder-storms as are never known in temperate regions. When the thunder ceases, nothing is heard but the pouring of the rain, which comes down for days in a steady stream. The river channels soon overflow, and rushing streams add to the sound of waters everywhere.

After several days the sky clears, and meantime, the parched brown earth has been covering itself with a magical mantle of green. The change is as great as if the bare brown fields of February in England were

[illegible]

**Harville Dept. Local**

suddenly to burst into the green freshness of May. The rains continue to fall from time to time till September, when they depart amidst thunder and lightning, as they came. This rainy season is called the wet *monsoon*, a word which simply means "season."

And now the south-west monsoon is driven out by a cold dry wind from the northern mountains, which is known as the *north-east monsoon*, because it blows from the north-east, and this wind brings the coolest, pleasantest season to the northern plains of India; the hot season follows, beginning usually in the month of March. To supply the fields with needful water during this season of drought, there are multitudes of irrigation canals and reservoirs scattered over the whole country.

Great numbers of English people live in India, because they have employment there. Perhaps you know the reason; this mighty country, as large as half of Europe, belongs to England! It is not quite correct, however, to speak of India as a single country; it is almost a continent in itself, containing many nations, the people of which speak as many as thirty different languages. "It is generally believed that in very early times India was inhabited by tribes belonging to the same stock as the people of Central Asia, the Mongolians. The time cannot be fixed with any certainty, but perhaps about 1600 years B.C., a colony of the Aryan or Indo-European race, fair-complexioned people from the high plateau on the north-west, descended into the great plain of Northern India, and establishing themselves there by physical force and higher culture, spread themselves out over all the low country north of the Vindhya mountains. Thus was formed the nation we know as the Hindus (the

dwellers by the Indus river). The inhabitants of the Deccan still remain distinct from these, being short and dark as compared with the taller and fairer Hindus, while their languages resemble those of the Tartars of Central Asia. Though descended from but two main stocks, the peoples differ quite as much among themselves as do the nations of Europe. Thus, the Bengali are clever, and advanced in many arts, but are weak and cringing, while the mountaineers of the north-west are manly and energetic, the Mahrattas of the Deccan are industrious and bold, while the Gonds of the west coast are cruel and revengeful barbarians."

Quite recently, our Queen has been declared *Empress* of India, as it was thought suitable that the sovereign of so many States should take rank as empress. And a very splendid empire India is. "From the line of the Himalaya southward to the extreme cape on the Indian Ocean, India occupies a space more than *fifteen* times as large as our island of Britain; a journey across it from north to south, or from east to west (about 1800 miles), would require half a year if one travelled ten miles every day."

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#### HISTORY OF BRITISH INDIA.

How this great empire came to belong to England is too long a history to be told here. India had long been known as a land where the merchants might load their ships with precious cargoes—gold and gems, silk embroidery, and ivory. In A.D. 1600, a company of London merchants got a charter from Queen Elizabeth which gave them the sole right of trading in all seas east of the Cape of Good Hope. No trade was so

profitable as that with India, and by-and-by these merchants gained permission from the native princes to build, here and there, warehouses for their goods, and fortresses for protection. They formed these trading places at Surat, Madras, Calcutta, and Bombay.

For a hundred years or more, this company of merchants carried on their trade, but did not greatly increase their possessions in India. Meanwhile the French had, also, established settlements on the coast, and French and English became jealous of each other's influence with the native princes. The emperors of Northern India at this time were the famous Great Moguls, mighty monarchs who claimed submission from a multitude of native princes. But a time came when the authority of the ruling Great Mogul was on the wane; rebellions amongst the native princes became more and more frequent, and the European settlers, French and English, took part with one side or the other as best suited their own purposes. It was now that the great soldier-statesman Robert Clive broke the power of France in Northern India by his great victory of Arcot, 1751. This was followed by the siege and capture of the English town of Calcutta by the viceroy of the Great Mogul in Bengal. The horrible crime of the "Black Hole of Calcutta" followed. One hundred and forty-six persons were confined in a room twenty feet square. The air-holes were small. It was in the hot season, when the fierce heat of Bengal can hardly be endured by natives of England, even when they dwell in lofty halls, and are cooled by the constant waving of fans. A night of agonies, too frightful to describe, followed. In the morning, only twenty-three wretched beings were



drawn out from among the dead bodies of their comrades.

This event, in the end, greatly increased the power of the English in India.

In the following year, 1757, Clive defeated the infamous Surajah Dowlah in the battle of Plassey, when 3000 British troops were victorious over 60,000 of the enemy. This great victory was the means of adding the fertile country of Bengal, which now includes nearly the whole of Northern India, to the English. Ten years later, two powerful sovereigns of Southern India, assisted by the French, rose against the English; but they were defeated by Warren Hastings—another English name famous in the history of India.

We cannot follow the history of the wars which added one Indian State after another to the possessions of the British—wars carried on for the most part by means of the native soldiers who served the English for pay. But in 1857, the native army, discontented for many reasons, broke out in the Sepoy rebellion. Far more revolting than the tale of the Black Hole of Calcutta is that of the massacre of Cawnpore, when tender English ladies and children fell into the hands of the native soldier, the savage Sepoy.

This frightful mutiny brought about a change in the government of India. The East India Company was required to make its powers over to the Crown. Now, a Secretary of State for India manages Indian affairs at home, with the assistance of a council; while in India itself, a Viceroy, or Governor-General, assisted also by a council, carries on the government.

The Great Mogul has ceased to be; but there are still some 400 or 500 native States, each ruled by its own native prince or rajah, but under the control of the

British Government. There are two really free States among the northern mountains—Nepal and Bhutan; and France and Portugal have still a few, small, scattered possessions. With these exceptions, India is under the rule of Great Britain; and, as we have said, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India in 1876.

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### THE HIMALAYA MOUNTAINS.

Hindustan has on the north the lofty range of the Himalaya, or “abode of snow”—really the southern border of the vast table-land of Tibet—stretching out in a continuous chain for nearly 1800 miles. Six of the summits are fully five miles in height, and one of them, Mount Everest (29,002 feet), is the highest mountain in the world.

Are you trying to imagine how awful it must be to look up a mountain-wall five miles in height, high enough, you might think, to touch the sky? The Himalayas do not tower above the plain in this awful way, and nowhere do they look astonishingly high, because the snowy summits can only be seen from a great distance: from the base of the mountains only their slopes are visible, which are covered with various forest trees, and higher up, with rhododendrons. A traveller who crosses this mighty mountain mass—350 miles in width at its widest—finds himself perpetually shut in between lofty crags, and only now and then gets a glimpse of countless snowy peaks and wide glaciers. In these high snow-fields rise the three great rivers of India—the Indus, the Ganges, and the Brahmapootra, which water the low plains at the foot of the mountains.

In front of the ascent there are lower, or sub-Himalayan ranges, and between the last of these and the plains of India there extends a broad strip of marshy land called the *Terasi*, covered with forest and jungle, crowded with wild animals, and so unhealthy that it cannot be inhabited by man.

A traveller, who crossed one or two of the lower chains that he might get a view of the main range from the highest of the sub-Himalayas, thus describes what he saw :—

“We were on the crowning point of the sub-Himalayas. To the north I looked into the wild heart of the Himalayas—a wilderness of barren peaks, a vast jumble of red mountains, divided by tremendous clefts and ravines of that dark indigo hue which you sometimes see on ‘the edge of a thunder-cloud,’ but in the background, towering far, far above them, rose some of the mightiest pinnacles of the chain. There they stood, immeasurably above me, and so cold and clear, and white, that I should have thought they were not more than twenty miles off, had I not known that they were fully seventy miles away.

“Though not the highest of the Himalayas, these mountains form the great central group of the chain, and contain the cisterns whence spring the rivers of India, Tibet, and Burmah. The snows of their southern slopes feed the Jumna and Ganges; of their northern, the Sutlej, Indus, and Brahmapootra. Around this group cling the traditions of the Hindoo mythology. Thence came the first parents of the race; there appeared the first land after the deluge. And upon the lofty table-lands of Central Asia, whereon those peaks look down, was probably the birth-place of the great Aryan family from which the Hindus and ourselves are

alike descended. Far to the north-west, where the Altai, the Hindu Kush, and the Himalaya join their sublime ranges, there is a table-land, called, in the picturesque language of the Tartars, the 'Roof of the World.' Under the eaves of that roof, on the table-land of Pamir, if we may trust Asiatic tradition, dwelt the parents of our race."

To the north-west of the Himalayas, the Suliman mountains present a steep and forest-covered face.

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#### THE VALLEY OF THE GANGES.

Southward, from the base of the Himalayas, the Great Plain of Northern India spreads out, reaching across the whole breadth of Hindustan, from the Arabian Sea to the Bay of Bengal. The eastern part of this plain, watered by the Ganges and Brahmapootra and their tributaries, is most fertile, and densely peopled. The melting of the mountain snows causes the rivers to overflow and flood the plain; and the rich mud left after the floods prepares the fields for the rice crops—the main support of the vast population of India.

The towns and villages swarm with people, and most of these are engaged in tilling the soil; but their farming is of the rudest; their clumsy ploughs are drawn by oxen, and they reap their crops with the sickle. The soil, however, is most fertile, and yields great crops of sugar-cane, cotton and indigo, rice and wheat, opium and tobacco. The fields and gardens are full of scented flowers, and the villages stand among groups of the shady mango tree, which yields a refreshing fruit, or of the wonderful banyan. The banyan and the tamarind are the characteristic trees of India.

At the head of the Bay of Bengal the plain ends in the great group of marshy islands called the *Sundarbans*, which form the vast delta of the Ganges. These are separated by countless narrow water channels, and all are overgrown by low wood and jungle, sheltering tigers, wild buffaloes, wild swine, deer, and monkeys.

The Ganges is the great river of Northern India, and the sacred river of the Hindus; and from the sacred and very dirty city of Hardwar, where it issues from the sub-Himalayas, to Calcutta at its mouth, many of the most famous cities of India are scattered in its valley.

Very few of the mouths of the Ganges afford passage for ships; but upon the Hooghly, which is the most navigable, stands the great town of Calcutta, the capital of British India. It is the London, or rather, the Paris of India; the "City of Palaces," its admirers call it. "It is not a city of palaces, but a city of large houses; and the view of the long line of mansions on the principal roads would not disgrace any capital in Europe; but get beyond this, and you are in winding, dusty, narrow streets, lined with the mean dwellings of the lower classes of the native population."

On the northern bank of the Ganges is Benares, the holy city of the Hindus, and one of the most ancient in India. In the English part of the town there are some handsome mansions, a fine church, and a Sanscrit College—a noble building; while the Indian town is full of interest. The streets are narrow and crooked, but well paved; the houses are lofty, substantial structures of wood, with projecting stories, and at every turn the eye rests upon the gilded domes of a Hindu temple, or the tall minaret of a Mohammedan mosque. The Golden Pagoda is the great sight of the

city; and all round it, the streets are obstructed with numbers of sacred bulls. Benares swarms with these animals, knowing bulls, quite aware of their sacred character, the terror of the dealers in fruit and vegetables.

Allahabad, also, is a holy city of the Hindus. A traveller says:—"When the sun rose, I saw the Ganges in the distance, and the richness and beauty of the scenery betokened my approach to Allahabad. The plain was covered with a deluge of the richest grain, and dotted with magnificent groves of mango trees. The road was thronged with pilgrims, returning from the festival, and most of them, women as well as men, carried large jars of Ganges water, which they would pour upon the shrines of the gods at Benares. For though the river is holy everywhere, here it is holiest; because, according to the Hindus, *three* rivers meet here—the Ganges and the Jumna, and a third which has its source in paradise, and thence flows underground to join the Ganges at this spot."

The great military station and commercial town of Cawnpore—terribly memorable for the massacre of English women and children here during the Sepoy mutiny of 1857—is on the right bank of the Ganges. Cawnpore is a pleasant spot, though it contains little to interest the traveller.

There is far more life, gaiety, and appearance of wealth in Lucknow than in any other native city in India. "In the afternoon we went out to see Lucknow, mounted on three of the largest elephants. With our gilded howdahs,\* long, crimson housings, and the resplendent dresses of the drivers and umbrella-holders

\* The howdah is a sort of carriage, borne on the back of the elephant.

who sat behind us on the elephants, we made as stately a show as any of the native princes. It was the fashionable hour for appearing in public, and as we entered the broad street, it was filled with a long string of horses and elephants, surging slowly through the dense crowd of pedestrians. Turning back, we plunge into the heart of the city—into the dark, narrow, crooked streets of old Lucknow."

Agra, on the Jumna, was, for a century, the residence of the great Mogul emperors, and contains wonderful monuments of their taste and power. Amongst these, the *Taj Mahal* is considered the finest work of art in Hindustan. The name, which signifies a mausoleum and a palace, gives a description of the monument in two words. It was erected in the year 1719 by the Emperor Shah Jehan, "king of the world." He promised his beautiful wife upon her death-bed, that as she excelled all her sex in beauty and accomplishments, so her tomb should be the finest building on the face of the earth; and to the memory of the fair queen, Noor Jehan, "the light of the world," he raised the lovely *Taj*, employing all the most celebrated artists and workmen in India.

Agra is still called by the natives Akbar-abad, the city of Akbar, from the famous emperor to whom it owed its origin, and much of its ancient splendour.

More famous even than Agra is Delhi—also on the Jumna—the imperial city of India, which all the Moguls, excepting Akbar, had for their capital. The modern city of Delhi is the last of its name, there having been several Delhis, because whenever the city was taken and desolated in the early wars, instead of rebuilding it, the inhabitants founded a new one in the neighbourhood: thus, for more than ten miles in

every direction, the country is strewn with the ruins of palaces, mosques, and tombs—as beautiful as those of Agra, and far more numerous. Modern Delhi is a large and picturesque native city. In addition to the manufacture of shawls and scarfs, only less beautiful than those of Cashmere, Delhi is celebrated for its jewelry.

Amongst the famous cities in the valley of the Ganges, we should have mentioned Moorshedabad, once a place of great wealth and splendour; Dacca, formerly famous for its muslins, so soft and fine that they received the name of “flowing water”; and Patna, which gives its name to the best kind of Indian rice.

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#### THE VALLEY OF THE INDUS.

The Indus drains the western part of the Great Plain. The northern part of its valley is a fertile district watered by five rivers, all of which unite in the Indus: this district is called the Punjab, a name which means “five rivers.” Here are broad, grassy steppes between the fertile borders of the rivers, affording boundless grazing ground for camels, cattle, buffaloes, sheep, and goats.

Further south is a dreary tract, the Great Indian Desert, which is twice as large as Britain; it is covered with wave-like ridges of sand, and can, for the most part, be crossed only by camels.

Beyond this, about the Lower Indus, come the dusty plains of Sindh; and, on the coast, a curious stretch of level land called the Runn of Kutch—150 miles in length—where vegetation is entirely absent. It is a salt desert, so hard and dry that the hoofs of the camels and horses which cross it do not make the



slightest impression. During the south-west monsoon, however, the tides flow over it, and convert the Runn into a shallow bay.

Lahore is the chief town of the Punjab, and here is the junction of the great railways of the north-west. Amritsar is the holy town of the Sikhs. Attock stands at a great crossing place of the Indus, and has a fortress. Mooltan is a busy trading town.

Cashmere, a country larger than Great Britain, is a tributary State to the Punjab province: it reaches from the plain northward through the Himalaya mountains to the borders of Tibet. It is a wild mountain country, with deep ravines and lovely valleys and steep forest-clad mountains; the high valleys yield pasturage to the goats and wild sheep, from whose wool the well-known Cashmere shawls are made. The far-famed "Vale of Cashmere" is a lovely mountain valley, about fifty miles in length, fragrant with roses, grown for the manufacture of the attar.

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#### THE DECCAN.

Southern India is occupied, for the most part, by a wide table-land called the Deccan, which is marked by undulating treeless plains, flat-topped hills, and wide stretches of jungle. This table-land is shut in on either hand by mountain ranges known as the Eastern and Western Ghauts, which run parallel with the two coasts of the peninsula. The Western Ghauts, clothed with magnificent teak forests, form an almost unbroken range about thirty miles or so from the sea. The Eastern Ghauts are much lower, at a greater distance from the sea, and with wide openings for the passage of the rivers, for the Western and not the Eastern Ghauts

form the watershed of Southern India. Let us hear the description of a traveller journeying towards the Deccan from Bombay:—

“Morning showed me an open, rolling country, studded here and there with clumps of trees, and showing occasional signs of cultivation. The sea was out of sight, and the broken ranges of the Ghauts before me seemed near at hand. The road was broad and good, but so beaten by continual travel that we swept along in a cloud of dust. At last we reached the base of the Ghauts, and our road now plunged into a wild, hilly region, covered with jungle. Our progress over this rough and frightfully steep road was hindered by the endless throngs of bullocks which we met. They were laden with bags of rice and of grain and bales of cotton, on their way downward to the coast; we must have passed twenty thousand of them.

“We were nearly four hours in making the twelve miles over the pass which brought us to the foot of the South Ghaut. The highest ridge of the range was now above us, and the final ascent of the table-land commenced. The formation of this part of India very much resembles that of the west of Mexico. The summit is generally level, but sharp peaks rise here and there, formed of abrupt terraces, crowned by domes or towers of naked rock which look in the distance exactly like works of art—indeed, like the ancient temples or pagodas of the Hindus. The word *ghaut* means a flight of steps, as the Ghauts are a succession of terraces descending from the table-land to the sea; and every Hindu temple is approached by a *ghaut*.

“The winding road round the sides of the gorge gave me grand views of the lower terraces of the Ghauts. At the top, we entered on the great table-land of

Central India. It was an open, undulating region, much better cultivated than any I had yet seen, and crossed at intervals of twenty to thirty miles by high ranges of hills. The air was drier and purer than below, and the setting sun shone broad and warm over tracts of wheat and sugar-cane. We had crossed the watershed of India; and now we had to ford the Godavery, one of the largest streams in the country, which empties into the sea on the Coromandel coast, not far from Madras.

"The native Indian is darker than the Egyptian, and has a more acute and lively face, but in his habits and manners he has much in common with the latter. He has the same natural quickness of intellect, the same capacity for deception, the same curious mixture of impudence and abject servility, and the same disregard of clothing. The houses are low cabins of mud and bamboo, or, in the larger villages, of mud and sun-burnt bricks, with mud divans in front, and sometimes thatched verandahs resting on wooden pillars. Nothing can be more miserable than the appearance of the smaller villages."

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#### THE COAST PLAINS.

Before climbing the Western Ghauts, we should see Bombay, the capital of the Presidency, and by far the most important trading port of India, being the centre of its trade with Europe. It has an excellent harbour, but the climate is very trying to Europeans. As a city, it presents little to interest the traveller, as it is wholly of modern growth, and more than half European in its appearance. It is divided into two parts, the fort, and

the city within, which is crowded to excess, many of the streets being narrow, dark, and dirty.

The great sight of Bombay is the cave-temples of the lovely island of Elphanta: here you see the Hindu Trinity—Brahma, the Creator; Vishnu, the Preserver; and Shiva, the Destroyer; with an immense number of the thirty millions of inferior deities which have sprung from these, beautifully carved in the rock of the cave, the roof of which is supported by rows of many rock-hewn pillars. Nine-tenths of the people of India follow this Brahminical religion, and most of the remainder are Mohammedans. Christianity is making but slow progress amongst a people whose ancient religion fills up the greatest part of their lives and fixes their occupations.

Of the remaining towns of the Bombay Presidency, the most important are, Surat, the site of the first English factory; Hyderabad, the walled capital of Sindh; and Puna, the great military station of the Deccan.

Between the Eastern Ghauts and the sea lies the wide maritime plain known as the Carnatic, reaching back from the Coromandel coast for about fifty miles. The soil of this plain is fertile enough when it is well watered, but there are few streams, and a supply of water for irrigation must be stored in reservoirs against the dry season. On the south of this plain is the Gap of Coimbatour, a low passage between the east and west coasts with mountains on either side, those on the north being the Nilgiri mountains which rise like a vast precipice.

The Madras Presidency includes the low coast plains round the south of the peninsula; Madras is the only large town; it has an English and a native quarter;

its roadstead is good, but a heavy surf makes it difficult for ships to enter the harbour.

Off the south point of India, and divided from it by Palk Strait, is the mountainous and delightful island of Ceylon, the "jewel of the eastern seas." So lovely is Ceylon, that the Mohammedans believe, here was the paradise of our first parents. Upon Adam's Peak, the highest mountain in the island, is a mark like the print of a huge human foot—a footprint left by Adam, says the legend, when he climbed the Peak to take a last look at his beloved paradise: and, connecting the island with the mainland, is a chain of sandbanks known as Adam's Bridge, because upon these he stepped to reach the further shore. Coffee plantations cover the lower slopes of the hills, and higher up are forests hung with beautiful creepers. The date-palm, cinnamon, spices, sugar, cotton, tobacco, and indigo, are among the rich products of this island, where "every prospect pleases"; and there is a famous pearl-fishery off the coast. Ceylon, more than any other part of the world, abounds with precious stones. We must not leave India without a word about its gems. Diamonds, rubies, sapphires, and emeralds are found in various parts. Colombo is the well-fortified capital of Ceylon, and by far the largest town.

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#### INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

The peninsula of Further India, which lies between the Indian Ocean and the China Sea, is about ten times as large as Great Britain. It is formed by long ranges stretching southward from the great central table-land of Asia; and between these are broad valleys, watered by four great rivers, the Irawadi, the Salwen, the

Menam, and the Mekong. Almost the whole of it lies within the tropical zone, and in its hot, moist climate, vegetation flourishes with extraordinary luxuriance. Its peoples, excepting the Malays of the long southern peninsula, belong to the Mongolian family, and speak languages akin to those of China and Tibet. Buddhism is the prevailing religion. The greater part of the peninsula is divided between three or four despotic empires or kingdoms, all of which are still far beneath China in civilisation.

But, besides these, there are some foreign possessions, the chief amongst them being British Burmah—the long strip of western coast-land which reaches as far as the tenth parallel.

The northern part of British Burmah is called Arakan; much of it is low country, covered with jungle, and very unhealthy; but the marshy lands produce wonderful rice crops, and rice is the chief article of export.

Pegu, the middle division, is, really, the vast delta of the Irawadi, a low-lying country which yields enormous quantities of rice; while, on the higher grounds which wall in the great river, are the finest teak forests in the world. Rangoon is the largest town and trading port; so low does it lie, that the houses are raised upon piles to secure them from rain in times of flood. The town has a cheerful aspect, partly because the light-hearted people go about the streets adorned with flowers.

Tennasserim, the southern division of British Burmah, is a rugged wilderness, amongst whose thickly wooded hills and long valleys are the wild animals of the jungle, the elephant, rhinoceros, and tiger. The chief trade is in timber.

The empire of Burmah includes the north of the peninsula, excepting the British strip of coast. Here, as all over Further India, rice is the chief crop, while the forests are rich in all kinds of timber; especially, in the strong and durable teak. The Burmans are well-made, active people, though of small stature, light brown in colour, and with straight, black hair, which they arrange in a knot on the top of the head. The banks of the Irawadi are dotted with Burmese towns. At the great bend of the river, in the centre of the country, there is a cluster of cities, several of them in ruins, which have at various times been the capitals of the empire. Mandalay, which glitters with gilded pagodas, is the present capital, and here is the imperial residence with its many roofs, and the sacred *hti*, or umbrella, at the top of all. Burmah has not had much trade since its coast-lands were taken by Britain.

The kingdom of Siam lies to the south of Burmah; its richest district is the wide valley of the Menam, which has been called the "Nile of Siam," since it overflows its banks from June till November, fertilising the ground for the great rice crop. A great part of the Malay peninsula is subject to Siam, but its dependence is very slight; once in three years the Malayan Sultans send a gold or silver tree or flower to the King of Siam by way of tribute. Here, as in Burmah, are dense forests which yield teak, and the perfumed eagle-wood. The lower classes are in a state of serfdom, being obliged to give their labour to the nobles, the owners of the land. The trade of Siam is in the hands of Chinese settlers. The metropolis and the centre of the trade is the city of Bangkok; here are the royal palaces, with hundreds of pagodas, surrounded by

bamboo houses built on piles; all the river is covered with floating boat-houses. The King of Siam and his court are diligent students; the late king was master of Sanscrit, of English, Latin, and French, and was, besides, an excellent astronomer.

The kingdom of Anam, in the east of the peninsula, includes Tonquin and Upper Cochin China. The northern district, Tonquin, is famous for its fisheries; and here, fearful typhoons occasionally bring great destruction, especially to the fishing population. Besides Ceylon, Upper Cochin China is the only important cinnamon-yielding country. The King of Anam acknowledges the Emperor of China as his superior, though an offering of cinnamon is the chief article of tribute sent to China. The Anamese are not skilled in arts or manufactures, but they excel as ship-builders. Hue, the capital, has been strongly fortified by French engineers. France has of late succeeded in establishing herself, with very considerable powers, in the district of Tonquin.

The rich district of Lower Cochin China, the delta of the Mekong, belongs to France; it produces enormous quantities of rice, as well as cotton, tobacco, the sugar-cane, &c.

The southern part of the Malay peninsula, excepting the British possessions, is in the hands of the Malays, and is a land of green forest and jungle, full of wild animals, such as elephants, tapirs, tigers, and large apes, crocodiles, and snakes. Its climate is one of excessive moisture, for the rains are carried over it by both the north-east and south-west monsoon winds. Penang, or Prince of Wales Island, and Wellesley Province on the east coast of the Malay peninsula, belong to



Britain. Both districts are rich in timber and spices, sugar, and indigo. George Town, on the island, is the chief European settlement.

Malacca, on the Straits of Malacca, which exports large quantities of tapioca and sago, is also British; and so is Singapore Island, "healthy and wealthy, the paradise of India," with a handsome city of the same name which is the great depôt of British trade in the South China seas. These four are known as the British Straits Settlements.

We must not quit this part of the world without a short notice of the East India Islands. The islands which form the East Indian Archipelago stretch round in a wide curve enclosing the China Sea, from the Straits of Malacca to the Channel of Formosa. Besides the larger Sunda Islands—Sumatra, Java, Borneo (itself nearly as large as Britain and France together), Celebes, and Luzon in the Philippine group—there are countless smaller islands grouped round these, all enclosing sheltered seas. As the sea penetrates everywhere, the people of most of the islands are born sailors; swift-sailing proas dart about on the waters, and the estuaries of the rivers support towns of boats—the only homes of their owners. Nowhere on the earth, excepting in the tropical forest lands of Brazil, is there such luxuriant vegetation, or such abundant animal life. Another characteristic of these islands is the immense number of volcanoes; most of the islands in the belt round Borneo have volcanoes, and earthquakes are very frequent. Most of the southern islands belong to the Dutch—Java being the richest and most important. The greater part of the Philippine group are Spanish possessions. The British hold Labuan Island on the north of Borneo, and some of the islands are under

native rule. Here are the Moluccas, the famous spice islands, from which the nutmeg, mace, and clove are brought; as indeed they are from most of the islands, which yield, also, rice, maize, cocoa-nuts, sago-palms, sugar-cane, cotton, and tobacco, and all sorts of tropical fruits.

### Questions on the Map of India.

1. Describe the situation of India. Between what parallels. Its shape. Coasts upon what seas. Character of coasts. Most southern point.

2. India is bounded on the north by a vast mountain mass,—name these mountains. How many chains appear on the map? The highest point. Name three States entirely amongst the mountains. Which of these is in the upper valley of the Indus? Five great rivers rise near each other at a point about 80° E. long,—name them. Describe the early course of each of these rivers. Into what sea does each of them fall? Name any towns amongst the north-western mountains.

3. The Hindu Kush is the centre of this great mountain system :—what branch range runs due south, forming a north-western boundary of India? What State is on the further side of this range? What mountains divide Baluchistan from India? Running almost due east from the Hindu Kush, what range have we? Name the mountain ranges which form the northern and southern faces of the vast table-land of Tibet. A town in Tibet.

4. Still connected with the Hindu Kush is a more northern range, nearly parallel with the Kuen Lun mountains,—name it. The map shows that this part of Central Asia is a region of continental drainage where it is not entirely riverless,—name any river. What eastern and western empires meet at the Tian Shan mountains? Name a lake and a town in Russian Central Asia. A vast desert to the north of Tibet.

5. The Himalaya mountains send a branch range into Further India,—through what country does it run? What State of Further India is in the valley of the Brahmaputra?

6. What name is given to the low lands of the Ganges delta? What other river unites here with the Ganges? A town on the mouth of the Brahmaputra. On which mouth of the Ganges does

Calcutta stand? Five towns on the right bank of the Ganges. One on the left. A town at the junction of the Jumna with the Ganges. Two towns on the Jumna. Two towns near the source of the Ganges. In what general direction does the Ganges flow? Where does it rise? What governments are within its basin?

7. What rivers does your map show as uniting to form the Indus? Where do these rivers rise? What name is given to the country drained by them? Name any towns in the Punjab. What mountains bound the Punjab on the west? The lower course of the Indus is through a desert,—name it. A town on the delta of the Indus. What Presidency does this part of India fall within? The two great deltas mark the beginning of tropical India,—why?

8. Peninsular India is a high plateau,—name it. Name the mountain chains which bound it on the north, south, east, and west. Name three rivers which drain the Deccan. Which of these enter the Bay of Bengal? Which enters the Arabian Sea? Name five or six towns upon the Deccan. The governments which it contains.

9. What name is given to the coast at the foot of the Western Ghats? Name a town on the Malabar coast. The chief town of the Presidency. A Portuguese possession. How are the hills of the southern point separated from the Nilgery hills?

10. What Presidency occupies the low plain on the west? Name any towns on this coast. What is the coast called? What strait separates Ceylon from the mainland? What natural "bridge" appears to connect the two? A gulf between Ceylon and the mainland. Two towns in Ceylon. A mountain.

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## THE CELESTIAL EMPIRE.

PERHAPS China is, to us, the most interesting of Eastern countries. Our cup of tea is a cup of fellowship with the natives of the "Flowery Land"; and we feel kindly towards the people who produce the precious plant and who enjoy the infusion even more than we do.

We know that John Chinaman rejoices in a pigtail, made of his own hair or somebody else's, which reaches nearly to his ankles; that he begins to read or write at the right-hand corner of the page instead of at the left; that he likes the finger-nails of his left hand to be enormously long, in order to show that he does no hard work; and that, even when he is an old man, he finds much pleasure in flying a kite. Facts like these amuse us, but perhaps we do not know much about the appearance of the country, or the way in which the people live.

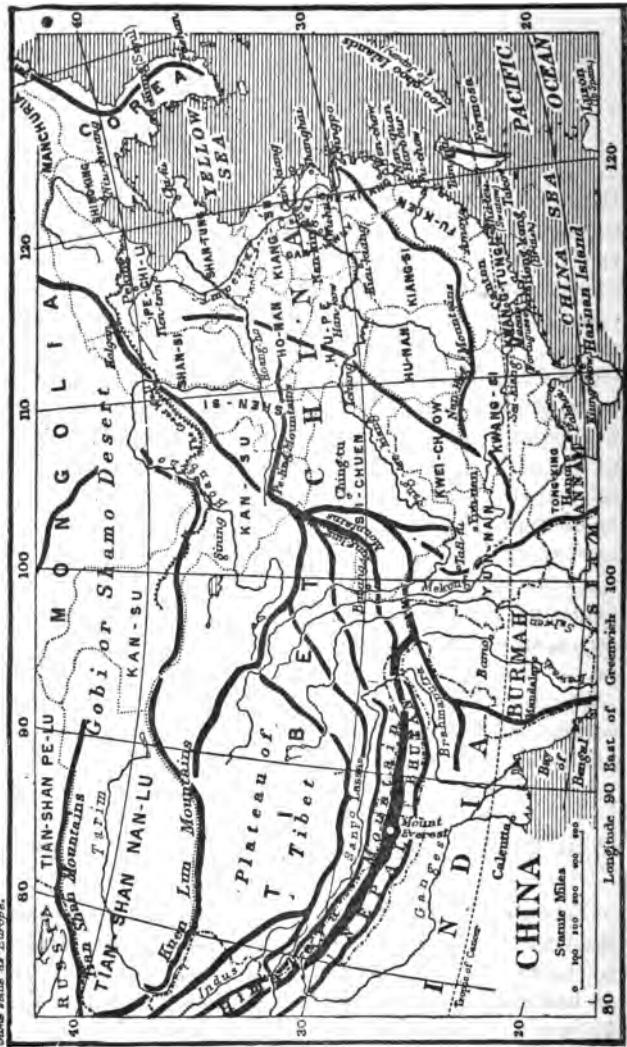
Besides China Proper, the Chinese Empire includes certain large and little-known countries to the north and west. One of these is the Corea.

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### THE COREA AND OTHER GREAT DEPENDENCIES OF CHINA.

Few parts of the world are less known to Europeans than the Corea, a dependency of China Proper lying to the south of Manchuria; yet the time appears to be at hand when the civilisation of the West will make its way to this land in the extreme East.

Some ends as Europe.



Standard Geog. Engrs.

Corea is a land of mountain, flood, and forest. "Wherever you place the foot," writes a missionary, "you see nothing but mountains, naked, or overgrown with pine woods, crowned by forests, or clothed with dense shrub. In every direction you gaze upon thousands of sharp-pointed peaks, immense rounded cones, and frightful precipices, and, further still, you see yet higher mountains, and thus it is throughout the land.

"The only exception is the plain of Nai-po, stretching towards the western shore (south of the capital), where the hills are lower and further apart than elsewhere in the peninsula; the valleys are wider and give more room for the cultivation of rice. The soil is more fertile, too; there are many canals, and Nai-po, from the plentifulness of its produce, is known as the granary of the capital."

The climate shows great extremes, both of heat and cold. During a great part of winter, the whole country is covered with snow, and most of the rivers are more or less frozen. The hills are covered with firs, laurels, oaks, elms, camellia, chestnut, and walnut trees, and with thickets of rhododendron. The mulberry and the cotton bush flourish in the centre and south; and most of the cereals and various vegetables and fruits are cultivated.

Corea is infested by savage carnivora. Tigers, leopards, bears, and wolves abound, and the tigers frequently carry off human victims. The domestic animals of the Coreans are much like our own; but the flesh of the dog is esteemed a delicacy.

In person, the Coreans are taller and stronger than the Japanese. It is said that a Corean will eat twice as much as a Japanese. They are better formed, too,

presenting a softened Mongolian type of countenance, narrower between the cheek-bones and less heavy in the jaw.

The great bulk are black-haired, but perhaps ten in a hundred have hair of a chestnut colour, often of quite a light shade. Very commonly, especially among the nobles, high aquiline noses and delicately cut features give a refined and distinguished look to the face.

The number of the population is doubtful, but, considering the mountainous nature of the country, most likely it does not exceed eight millions. The Coreans are a good-natured and kindly people, hospitable to strangers and helpful to each other, and possessed of plenty of natural courage; but they are dirty in their habits, evil in their lives, gluttonous, fond of gain, revengeful, and suspicious—in a word, they have the vices of a poor and oppressed people.

The government is an Oriental despotism, and although the monarch is not held as sacred as the Mikado of Japan, yet he may not be touched, and ought not to be seen. It is said that all public employments are open to every Corean who passes the proper examinations, but in fact most of the public business is conducted by the nobles. The examinations test nothing but the candidate's knowledge of certain Chinese books, his power of expressing himself in elegant sentences, and his beautiful penmanship: of this last art the Coreans think very highly, and the walls of their dwelling-rooms are decorated with maxims and verses in beautiful ornamental writing. They have a game, too, a sort of written conversation, in which everybody writes flowery sentences in his most beautiful style.

The women are treated with great politeness in public, though they receive little enough respect at

home, and have no right to any name, even to a surname. Marriages are always arranged by go-betweens. The principal ceremony consists in the fastening up of the hair of both parties on the eve of the wedding day. The unmarried youth of both sexes wear their hair in a long tress which hangs down the back; but, for his marriage, a youth must have his hair rolled up into a top-knot, fixed on the crown of his head, while the lady's is arranged as a "chignon."

The most pleasing trait of Korean domestic life is the mutual affection of parents and children. Throughout life the son treats his father with the utmost respect; memorial columns and temples are sometimes raised in honour of filial self-sacrifice; and very long and solemn is the mourning which takes place on the death of a parent or near relative.

The nobles form a numerous and very powerful class. They wear a distinctive sort of cap, made of horse-hair, and are further known by the colours of their dress, which is often of silk, and by the fashion and hue of their girdles. When a noble passes by, the people must prostrate themselves, and nothing can exceed the pride and insolence of this order.

The clothes of the men are loosely made, and seem twice too big for them; those of the women are longer and less ample; the young women prefer rose colour and yellow, while the older women dress in violet. The food of the people is very poor, consisting chiefly of rice, beans and millet, made savoury by means of castor-oil, garlic, and peppermint. Their dwellings are equally poor—mostly square huts, little better than dog-kennels: in fact, as a nation, the people of Corea are exceedingly poor.\*

\* From the 'Quarterly Review,' No. 309.



To the north of the Corea is Manchuria, whose people conquered China, and during the fifteenth century placed a Manchu sovereign at the head of the Celestial Empire. Forests cover the whole country in the north. In the west are great rolling prairies on which large herds of cattle are pastured; while the south is like Northern China in its endless fields of rice, and its cotton, hemp, and tobacco culture. The eastern provinces of these three countries, China, Corea, and Manchuria, are full of industrious people who dwell in houses, and either till the soil or gather together in busy trading towns.

Mongolia is an enormous country, which stretches westward as far as the Altai mountains. Here the people dwell neither in towns nor villages; they have no houses, and they do not till the land, but live in *yurts*, or tents, and wander about with their herds over the grassy lands at the foot of the mountains which shut in this table-land of Mongolia. The Mongols pay no tribute to China, but are liable to military service, and the country is accordingly divided into districts under the control of Chinese mandarins. Most of the inhabitants of Mongolia belong to the pure Mongol race, as is shown by their high cheek-bones, round, flat faces, oblique eyes, scanty hair, and square, thick-set figures. In religion, they are Buddhists, and almost every third man among them belongs to the Lama priesthood, which has great influence over the people. A great part of Mongolia is occupied by an enormous stony desert, called the Gobi or Shamo, which is 2000 miles in length and 500 in width: this desert is full of terror to the Chinese, who imagine it to be peopled with uncanny folk—giants, dwarfs, and hobgoblins.

Eastern Turkistan, or Chinese Tartary, is perhaps

the most interesting of the countries under the rule of China. It lies like a vast bay enclosed by the highest mountains of Asia—the Tian-shan range on the north, the Pamir plateau on the west, and the Kuen-lun mountains on the south. Though, from its complete enclosure, the country is almost rainless, a crescent of fertile land extends round the base of the mountains, watered by the melting of the snows, and here are rich wheat-fields and orchards, cotton, flax, and other products. Here, too, are the seven cities of Eastern Turkistan, the best known of which are Kashgar and Yarkand. Beyond this fertile belt, a stony desert stretches out to join the Shamo.

Tibet is, like Mongolia, a vast table-land; but while Mongolia is between 3000 and 4000 feet above the level of the sea (that is, the whole country is about as high as the highest of the British mountains), Tibet, which is about eight times as large as Great Britain, is raised on the average from 11,000 to 15,000 feet above the sea-level, that is, taken altogether, the whole region is as high as the highest peaks among the Alps. Here are bare grassy plains where herds of wild asses and antelopes feed, and the great long-legged wild sheep, whose horns are "so large that the fox is said to take up his abode in their hollows when detached and bleaching on the barren mountains of Tibet." Great lakes, frequently salt, lie in these grassy plains; and, among the mountain snows, the famous rivers of India and China take their rise. The Tibetans are governed for the most part by their priests, who are called *lamas*, and live together in large monasteries which are often rich and splendid; so much is this the case, that the few towns of Tibet are simply great collections of temples and monasteries.

The Dalai Lama, the spiritual sovereign, has his seat at Lassa, in the centre of which is an immense temple, resplendent with gold and gems. Near it is a monastery which shelters seven thousand priests, while at least two other monastic towns in Tibet harbour between three and four thousand each. The people are, for the most part, wandering herdsmen, like those of Mongolia; they are only in very slight subjection to China.

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#### CHINA PROPER.

Having noticed the countries which form part of the great Chinese Empire, we return to China itself,—a land teeming with people, containing more than 400 millions of inhabitants.

China consists of one long slope of more than a thousand miles, reaching from the Yun-ling or Snowy Mountains on the west, to the shores of the Pacific on the east. Mighty rivers drain this slope, the chief of them being the Yang-tse-kiang, 3000 miles in length, and the Yellow Hoang-ho, both of which take their rise in the mountains of Tibet. These rivers bring down much earth in their courses, and, when they overflow their banks, spread a rich coating of river mud over the low plains of the coast. In this way the Great Plain of China, which reaches from the city of Peking to the city of Nanking, has been made one of the most fertile regions in the world. Ranges of mountains and hills—spurs from the great central table-land of Asia—cross the country towards the sea, dividing the great river-valleys. The best known of these are the Pe-ling mountains in the north, between the basins of the Hoang-ho and the Yang-tse-kiang;

and the Nan-ling mountains in the south, between the Yang-tse-kiang and the Canton river.

Not alone to natural causes does China owe the great fertility of its soil ; there are no such diligent farmers in the world as the Chinese. They are not clever like the Scotch in inventing new plans, and in making use of machines ; everything is done in China as it has been done for two thousand years ; all farming work is done by hand, with no better implements than the spade and the hoe. Horses are never employed, because they eat too much, and there are so many people in China that every inch of ground is made use of to grow food for them ; therefore, as there are few grass fields, there are but few of the creatures which generally live upon grass, such as horses, cows, and sheep.

Because they produce food for the people, farmers are held in high honour in China ; only the learned men take higher rank ; and these are quite the principal people, the noblemen or mandarins of the empire. Nobody is too grand to do the meanest kinds of farming work ; and upon a certain day in the early spring the great emperor himself, attended by the royal princes, sets out to drive the plough a few times through a field near the city of Peking ; and the grand mandarins who rule the provinces follow his example. Upon another fête-day, the empress goes forth with her ladies to gather mulberry leaves for the silkworms under her royal care.

The mulberry, rice, and the tea-plant yield the crops upon which the Chinese bestow the most labour ; rice is the most important of these, because upon this crop the people mainly depend for food. Rice requires a great deal of moisture, so it is grown chiefly round the

lower courses of the great rivers, and under the hot sun of Southern China. The fields are first well flooded, and afterwards carefully ploughed. The seeds, after being soaked in liquid manure, are thickly sown in small patches. When the young shoots reach a height of five or six inches, they are transplanted in rows into the muddy fields prepared for them. The labourers are quick and clever about their work, which is exceedingly laborious; during the planting and ploughing season they have to wade all day under a burning sun in a deep clay soil covered with several inches of stagnant water.

The Chinese farmer is never at a loss for water to flood his *paddy* (or rice) fields, for canals are as common in the Great Plain of China as roads are in England; indeed, there are few good roads beyond the towns, and no railroads, as all the carrying and travelling are done by water. The Imperial Canal is one of the most famous public works of China; it connects the rivers Hoang-ho and Yang-tse-kiang, and is 700 miles in length. By means of this canal it is possible to go in a junk from Canton, the great southern port, to the royal city of Peking in the north, with only one interruption.

We are all familiar with the clumsy appearance of the Chinese junk, and perhaps we know the story of how a certain Chinese emperor, on being asked for a pattern for boats which should last for all time, took off his shoe, wherefore, upon that pattern all junks have been made ever since; but, though it is not a graceful object, the mandarin-junk offers a very pleasant and comfortable means of travelling.

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## PART II.—THE CELESTIAL EMPIRE.

Her canals and junks are very important to China, as by these means food is borne to every corner of the country, and the rice, which flourishes in the south and centre only, is carried to the distant north. When the harvest is gathered, the junks are in motion all over the land, and a curious sight is to be seen upon river and canal; every boat carries from twenty to thirty cormorants, greedy and ungainly birds, which the Chinese sailors teach to fish; they dive at the touch of a little rod, and each reappears almost instantly with a fish, which it is prevented from swallowing by the metal collar it wears.

The banks of canals and rivers are usually planted with mulberry trees, which are carefully tended for the sake of their leaves, the favourite food of the silk-worm. Immense quantities of silk are produced in China, and the richer people, both men and women, usually wear silken garments; much is also exported to Europe.

We must say a word about tea, which, after rice, is the crop to which the Chinese give most attention. It is said that between two and three hundred square miles of Chinese territory are devoted to the growth of tea for our own country alone; and yet, so much do they make use of themselves, that were our custom to be withdrawn, the Chinese would hardly miss it. Tea is drunk at all meals in China, and many times besides during the day; everybody drinks tea as everybody eats rice. A stranger, whether wandering in crowded cities or in the farming country, will find in every house and at all hours a fragrant cup of tea ready for his acceptance; and near the banks of the

canals, he may often see wayside tea-houses wherein he or the weary *coolie* (labourer) may quench his thirst free of charge.

The tea-shrubs are planted in rows, about three or four feet apart, and yield their leaves four times a year; the women and children belonging to the farm generally do all the picking. The first gathering takes place in April, when the leaves are scarce and young, and produces the finest flavoured tea. The tea-farmer always prefers a gentle slope for his plants, and a great deal of tea is produced in the hilly country in the south-east.

China has been until quite lately closed against foreigners; the British were allowed to trade at the port of Canton; and the little island of Hong-kong, hard by, belongs to Great Britain; but neither merchant nor missionary was allowed to penetrate further. A war, however, which terminated in 1842, opened the ports of Amoy, Fu-chow, Ning-po, and Shanghai, to the British; and by more recent treaties, more than a dozen other ports have been opened to foreign commerce.

Hong-kong, the Chinese for "sweet water," is a somewhat bare island. The broad, well-kept, very clean streets of the town of Victoria show that the island is British, or at any rate, is not Chinese. The streets are everywhere planted with fine trees which afford some shelter from the rays of the sun. The port is crowded with vessels of every shape and size, the most interesting being the junks, one end of which rises like a house, with windows and doors, two stories above the water.

The mouths of the Chinese rivers are crowded with craft of a rather different shape, small boats which are

the only homes of the families they belong to; here they live, father, mother, children, grand-parents, and cormorants, picking up a living how they can, because the coast districts of China are so crowded, there is hardly room for them upon land.

All Chinese cities are very much alike; a rather shabby wall of blue bricks surrounds the whole; the houses are low, generally only one story high, and never more than two; and the pagodas, or idol temples, which are sometimes as much as nine stories high, tower above every other building, for it is not lawful in China to build houses as high as the temples. The streets are narrow and not very clean, but are always lively and filled with jostling crowds of good-humoured Chinamen; how they manage to pass one another in their broad bamboo hats, the brims of which are often a yard across, is a marvel. The narrow streets are not, however, blocked up by wheeled carriages or carts: the coolies carry everything—timber, stone, iron, rice, whatever has to be moved: and they bear the rich people aloft on their shoulders in palanquins, or sedan chairs.

Coolie and mandarin alike have yellow complexions, narrow black eyes, small round noses, and plaited tails of hair; both wear long blue robes reaching nearly to their feet, but the coolie's blouse is of cotton, while the rich man wears dark blue silk, and his loosely-fitting silken trousers hang over black satin shoes with thick white soles, which are turned up at the toes like a boat. The lady's dress is very like her husband's, only that her robe is usually of pink or green silk, with wide flowing sleeves lined with satin and splendidly embroidered; but the lady is rarely seen abroad, as her tiny cramped feet, called in China "golden lilies," are not of much use in walking.



The Chinese belong to the Mongolian race, and, throughout China Proper, they are as much one people as are the English. Their religions are various; Buddhists, Mohammedans, and the followers of the Chinese philosopher, Confucius, abound in every town, but Christianity makes slow way in China.

"Standing in the way of all progress in China is the deep-rooted and universal superstition called *Feng-shui*, a form of divination, the professors of which must be consulted in every proposed undertaking to determine its good or ill luck." Indeed, the Chinese are a nation of gamblers and fortune-tellers; and the public tea-gardens, constructed very much after the pattern you may see on a willow-patterned plate, are the scenes of endless trials of fortune and gambling amusements.

No one can hold any employment whatever under the government without passing examinations; therefore, every one is educated in China, and the most learned are those who hold the highest offices; but the examinations are of very little use, for they only test the candidate's knowledge of the ancient Chinese classics, and do not require of him any modern or useful information. As foreigners are now allowed to enter China freely, so are the Chinese allowed to emigrate; and great numbers of them are to be found in Australia, India, California, and other quarters of the globe.

It is well known that, for centuries, the Chinese were skilful in various arts before these became known to Europeans. Thus, in the year 1000 A.D., great porcelain factories were founded by the reigning emperor, which to this day employ a million workmen, while Europe did not find out the secret of the manufacture until the beginning of the eighteenth century. But the Chinese are not a progressive people; they carry

their arts no further, and have little inventive power : indeed, they object to improvement and advances, and care only to do as has been done in the Celestial land from time immemorial. Their rich silks and satins, lacquered ware, metal works, and carvings in ivory are well known in Europe.

Tea and silk are the principal exports, and the maritime trade is carried on chiefly with Britain and her colonies, and, to a smaller extent, with Germany, France, the United States, &c. Cotton goods and opium from India are the principal imports. A large overland traffic is carried on with Russia. Great quantities of the finest tea, made up into "bricks," as well as silk stuffs, pass northward from Central China, to be disposed of at the world's fair of Nijni Novgorod.

Of the towns of China, Peking, the capital, and Nanking, the former capital, are both walled towns, with wide straight streets and open spaces, alive with incessant traffic and endless streams of people. In Nanking was the famous porcelain tower, 260 feet high, which was destroyed during a civil war in 1853. All the other great towns of China present nothing but a great mass of closely packed, red-tiled houses, with overlapping eaves excluding light and air, with a maze of narrow alleys, where the only glimpse of sky or breath of fresher air is to be had from the flat rooftops : the stench of a Chinese city and the filthy habits of the people are subjects too unpleasant to be dwelt upon.

The despotic form of government which prevails in China dates back from the time of the first emperor, about 200 B.C., who built the famous Wall of China, long one of the wonders of the world. The emperor is supreme—spiritual as well as temporal sovereign. His

person is sacred, and when he is carried abroad, the people return to their houses and bar the doors, for they may not look upon him and live. He is the high priest of the empire, and can alone perform the great religious ceremonies, and he only has the power of appointing the officials or mandarins of all grades who carry out his edicts.

### Questions on the Map of China.

1. Where is the Great Wall of China? Its direction. Close to what parallel does it run? What river crosses its course once or twice? It was built as a defence against the northern barbarians,—of what country?

2. There is communication by canal and river between Canton in the south and Peking in the north,—name the canals and rivers which form this route as far as they are marked. Which is the great canal of China? What two great rivers does it connect? These rise not far from each other,—where? In what direction do they both flow? Which makes the sharpest bends in its course?

3. What mountains divide the basin of the Hoang-ho from that of the Yang-tse-kiang? In what direction do they run? What mountain chain connects these with the Himalaya mountains?

4. Name two towns on the lower course of the Yang-tse-kiang. Three ports about its mouth. Which of these is at the end of the Imperial Canal? The most southern mountain range of China. A great river to the south of it. A town at the source of this river. A great port at its mouth. A small British island off the mouth of the river. A Portuguese possession on the left bank. Three ports to the north of Canton.

5. A large island off the east coast. Another considerable island off the south coast. What kingdoms of Further India touch upon the Chinese frontier? What immense tracts north and west of China Proper are included in the Chinese empire? How is the peninsula of the Corea bounded? How are its mountains situated? Name a town in the Corea.

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## JAPAN.

SITUATED, with regard to Asia, as the British Isles are with regard to Europe—that is to say, islands separated from the continent by narrow seas; of about the same size as Britain; having about the same population; with a landscape as verdant and as varied with mountain, vale, and woodland, with a climate of about the same average temperature, though more extreme, that is to say, colder in the winter and hotter in the summer,—the “land of the rising sun” may well be termed the Great Britain of the Eastern seas.

Japan Proper consists of three main islands separated by lovely enclosed channels like inland seas, which afford capital harbours, and are sprinkled with hundreds of beauteous islets. The islands are of volcanic origin, forming part of the volcanic chain which skirts the east coast of the continent. Many of the mountains are from 8000 to 8000 feet in height, but the most famous is the now extinct volcanic cone of Fusi Yama (14,000 feet)—whose snowy peak rises to the west of the capital—said to be one of the youngest mountains of the world, having risen in the course of a few days about three centuries before the Christian era.

The islands are generally mountainous, green, and beautiful. As they are long and narrow, with the mountains running lengthwise, the short and rapid rivers only add to the beauty and fertility of the country, but are not of much use for commerce.

Nothing can exceed the beauty of the coast scenery.

An American traveller thus describes the Bay of Jeddo :

“The western shore opened on the left, showing a broad, deep bay, embosomed by hills, covered with the greenest and most luxuriant foliage, and with several large villages at their base. We approached within three miles of the eastern shore, which is loftier and wilder than the western, rising into a chain of rugged mountains which showed no sign of habitation or cultivation. But the lower slopes, which undulated gently to the water, charmed me by the rich beauty of their scattered groves, and the green terraces into which centuries of patient cultivation have formed them. Out of England, there is nothing so green, so garden-like, so full of tranquil beauty. This is, in fact, one of the largest and finest bays in the world, and second to none in the varied and delightful scenery of its shores.”

In former years there were two Emperors of Japan, the Mikado, or spiritual ruler, and the Tycoon, or actual ruler; while the Daimios, or great nobles and princes, were almost independent of the government. But of late a great revolution has taken place; a powerful party in Japan became possessed with the desire that their country should take its place amongst the civilised States of the world. To this end, it was necessary to curtail the power of the great nobles, who held their lands under a kind of feudal tenure. The Mikado is still an absolute monarch, but he is assisted by a great council, over which he presides. “The government is carried on by swarms of officials, acting as spies on the people and on each other. Yet the people are as submissive as lambs. Their bondage sits lightly on their shoulders. They seem happy,

comfortable, and well-to-do. There are no signs of meanness, poverty, or shabbiness. The streets and houses are clean to a proverb. The people take great pride in cleanliness. The floors of their houses are carpeted with fine, clean, white matting of native manufacture, so clean that they put off their shoes before entering a room. Foreign visitors, by-the-by, are expected to do the same; but John Bull is too bumptious to honour the natives in that way. As to their personal cleanliness, that is placed beyond all doubt (!) by the institution of public baths, wherein you may see the whole population every afternoon washing by turns.

“The people are very polite to strangers. They do not even stop and stare at you in the streets as the Chinese do, but salute you civilly and pass on. Their language is sweet and musical, and easily learnt. The Japanese are lively, intelligent, liberal-minded, and anxious to improve in their knowledge, in which respect they contrast with the Chinese. In fact, the sail from China to Japan places you in an entirely different world. In their dress they are neat, and not gaudy; they choose the chastest and quietest colours. There are no rags or rottenness to be seen in the streets. No filthy, diseased beggars infest the thoroughfares. No foul stench poisons God’s sweet atmosphere.” This pleasing picture of Japan and the Japanese must, however, be limited to a few favoured towns on the seaboard. The Japanese of the interior are, it is true, a gentle, quiet, and affectionate people, but nothing can exceed the filthiness of their habits, and their extreme poverty and degradation.

“The women are carefully educated in this country, and consequently occupy a high position in social

life. In China, women are entirely ignored in public; no woman above the lowest classes is to be seen there. Wives and daughters of well-to-do people are kept close prisoners, and all knowledge of the outer world is kept from them. Japanese women, on the contrary, can read and write; they take an interest in their husband's affairs, and can manage his business in his absence."

"A taste for flower-gardens prevails with all classes, and in the rear of every shop a small spot of ground is laid out in miniature shrubberies, with dwarf pine, cedar, and orange, small piles of rock-work, a miniature lake, and winding paths, adapted for Lili-putians."

"The Japanese consider corporal punishment so degrading, that mothers never strike their offspring. Children are made to bear hunger, thirst, cold, pain, excessive labour, and the rigour of the seasons; and they are incessantly told that they must endure with patience the evils and misfortunes of life. Horror of falsehood and fraud, and love of justice and virtue are diligently inculcated. One of the results of this general education is to inspire the Japanese with a passion for books, which causes surprise to European visitors; everywhere, even in towns of small population, there are numerous bookshops, and the books have usually many pictures, engravings on wood or copper." But it is doubtful how far this passion for books is an advantage to the Japanese, as their reading is confined for the most part to very trashy romances and plays.

"Copper is exceedingly abundant in Japan; it is very much used in all its forms of pure copper, brass, and bronze, and working in copper is the chief industry of Jeddo, the capital city. We saw

brass or copper coverings to the roofs of their temples and shrines; their altars were loaded with copper, brass, and bronze castings; and the skill with which the Japanese work this metal so as to imitate gold in all the articles of taste and luxury exhibited in Jeddo, called for our constant admiration."

Jeddo is the capital of Japan, and its largest city; it is a wood-built town, spreading itself in the form of a crescent at the head of the Bay of Jeddo.

Miako is the court town, the seat of the literature and science of Japan.

Osaka, south-west of Miako, on a land-locked bay, has been called the "Venice of Japan," from its many canals and bridges, and is the favourite resort of the fashionable, possessing sumptuous tea-houses, gardens, and theatres.

Yokohama and Nagasaki, like Jeddo itself, are amongst the ports which have been opened to foreign commerce; for, until recently, the Japanese were so jealous of any influence from abroad, that no foreigner was allowed upon their shores; and even at the present time a great number of the interior departments are closed to foreigners. The trade of Japan is now carried on chiefly with Great Britain and the United States; the great export to our country being silk; the chief imports from it, cotton and woollen goods.

The town of Nagasaki has been gradually increasing in size and importance since it first gave admittance to foreigners, and it now ranks as one of the five imperial towns of the empire. The streets are rather crooked; some are parallel, and cross streets run up the hill-sides, till they reach the country with its pleasant tea-gardens and retired hamlets. Most of the streets have



gates at both ends, which are closed every night. Here are schools where the young Japanese may be heard roaring out their lessons; and shops for the sale of necessities and luxuries, such as sweetmeats, fruits, wines, and tobacco; silk shops, too, and old curiosity shops with bronzes, porcelain, and lacquered ware.

The complexion of the Japanese varies from yellow to white in the upper classes; the eyes are long, narrow, dark, and deep-set; the hair, black and thick: they are a proud and fiery people, but friendly, intelligent, and polite. They are a nation of farmers, cultivating the ground in the most careful and excellent way; rice, maize, wheat, barley, tea, cotton, and tobacco, as well as the mulberry tree, being the principal objects of culture. The islands have a very beautiful flora, to which our European gardens owe many of their most ornamental plants: the special beauty of Japan is, that here plants of tropical and of temperate regions flourish side by side: the banana, bamboo, tree-ferns, and palms, along with the pine, oak, beech, and chestnut. The camphor and lacquer trees, the vegetable wax tree, and the paper mulberry are characteristic of Japan.

The delightful and highly civilised Loo Choo Islands, whose people are cleanly, clever, and courteous as the Japanese themselves, the south of Sagalien, a little-settled district, and the half-barbarous island of Yezo, are under the government of Japan.

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## AFRICA.

AFRICA, which is more than three times the size of Europe, is a vast, unbroken peninsula, hanging on to Asia by the narrow isthmus of Suez, but everywhere else surrounded by the sea.

No other continent presents such unbroken shores to the ocean: look at the map, and you will see that for the whole sixteen thousand miles of coast never an inland sea or far-reaching gulf has broken into the solid mass of the land. No islands fringe the shores. The Canaries, Cape Verd Islands, Ascension, and St. Helena, which are considered as African islands, lie far out in the ocean; and Madagascar has 300 miles of deep sea between it and that continent.

Compare this solid front of Africa with the much divided lands and broken shores of Europe, and you may tell without book that while Europe is first amongst the continents in civilisation and commerce, Africa, shut up in herself and turning closed doors to the world, is still a "dark continent," groping in the night of ignorance, idolatry, and cruelty.

Indeed, though geologists consider Africa to be the oldest of the continents, it is only within the present century that travellers have so far made tracks across it as to enable us to form some idea of its general character, its people, and productions; and to this day very much of the interior is altogether unknown.

Africa forms in fact a continuation of the belt of

This is a detailed historical map of Africa and its surrounding regions, including Europe, Asia, and the Middle East. The map is oriented with North at the top. It shows major geographical features such as the Sahara Desert, the Nile River, the Red Sea, the Mediterranean Sea, and the Indian Ocean. Key cities and regions are labeled, including Egypt, Sudan, Ethiopia, and various parts of North and West Africa. The map also includes latitude and longitude lines, a scale bar, and a compass rose.

**Geographical Features and Regions:**

- Europe:** Labeled at the top, including parts of France, Spain, Italy, and Greece.
- Asia:** Labeled at the top right, including the Black Sea and the Red Sea.
- Africa:** Labeled at the bottom, showing various regions and cities.
  - North Africa:** Egypt, Sudan, Libya, Tunisia, Algeria, Morocco.
  - West Africa:** Senegal, Gambia, Guinea, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Ivory Coast, Ghana, Nigeria, Cameroon, Gabon, Congo, Angola, Namibia, South Africa.
  - East Africa:** Ethiopia, Somalia, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Lesotho, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Madagascar.
  - South Africa:** Cape Town, Durban, Johannesburg, Pretoria, Port Elizabeth, Cape of Good Hope.
- Other Regions:** Cyprus, Syria, Iraq, Persia, Arabia, India, China, Japan.

**Latitude and Longitude:**

- Latitude:** 40° N, 20° N, 0° (Equator), 20° S, 40° S.
- Longitude:** 20° W, 0° (Greenwich), 20° E, 40° E.

**Scale and Orientation:**

- Scale:** 0 to 1000 Statute Miles.
- Compass Rose:** Located in the bottom right corner, showing North, South, East, and West.

Stanford's Geog. Estab.

high table-lands which stretches across Asia: it is a vast plateau, bordered on all sides by mountain ranges sloping to the sea.

Southern Africa forms a table-land like the much smaller plateau of the Deccan; and raised some 3000 feet above the sea. "The African Deccan is a little higher and cooler than the Indian one. The African huts resemble the native Indian ones, but are much better built; in the possession of the plough, the Indians have the advantage over the Africans, but both cultivate very nearly the same grain. The soil and general appearance of the country, trees, rivers, and undulating plains, are remarkably alike in both the African and Indian Deccans. But, in Africa, we see patches of fine, long-stapled cotton, nearly equal to the Egyptian, instead of the miserable stuff grown in India.

"The contrast between the two countries is, however, very striking. In India the evidences of human labour are everywhere apparent, in roads, bridges, stone walls, ruins of temples, and palaces. In Africa, the whole country looks, for all that man has done, just as it did when it came from the hands of its Maker. The only roads are footpaths, worn by the feet of the natives, winding from village to village. The huts built here leave no ruins; and the only durable monuments to be met with are mill-stones, worn in the middle, and cairns in the passes of the mountains."\*

Northern Africa, between the southern plateau and the mountains of Barbary on the Mediterranean coast, appears to be generally lower, being about a thousand or fifteen hundred feet above the sea-level. Here lies

\* Dr. Livingstone.

the vast Sahara, the great desert with whose horrors we have been familiar from our earliest years. The presence of sea-sand and sea-shells go to prove that, not in very remote ages, this vast region must have been the bed of an inland sea ; and was, probably, so raised by subterranean forces as to tip over the waters which it contained. Let such a sea again penetrate the heart of Africa, and commerce would ply its shores, and moisture-laden breezes would gladden the waste : and to bring about this change, to let in ever so small a sea upon the sandy wastes of the Sahara, is one of the noble dreams of science in our day.

The lowlands of Africa are simply the narrow fringes of the coast, and the huge deltas pushed out to sea by two or three of the great rivers, such as the delta of the Nile on the Mediterranean coast, that of the Zambesi on the Indian Ocean, or of the Ogowai and Niger on the Atlantic.

On the south, the table-land shelves down to the sea in narrow parallel terraces. In its southern extremity at the Cape of Good Hope, the African continent is about 700 miles broad, and ends in three narrow, parallel ridges of mountains, with long valleys, called karroos, between them ; these are, in fact, the steps by which the table-land dips down to the low plains of the coast. On the west side the mountains form a high group, and here is Table Mountain (3582 feet), with a flat table-top, and a table-cloth of clouds, which is a well-known landmark for mariners. The karroos are arid deserts in the dry season, but after the rains, they are covered with verdure and the most glorious carpeting of flowers,—delicate heaths, brilliant geraniums, many of the choicest treasures of our hot-houses.

The mountains forming the eastern wall of the great

plateau are truly Alpine, the most inland range reaching a height of 10,000 feet; while Kenia and Kilimanjaro are mighty giants of eighteen and twenty thousand feet.

The Livingstone mountains wall in Lake Nyassa, and, further south, the Drakenberg ranges rise, steep and wall-like, facing the Indian Ocean, and leading round to the terraces which form Cape Colony.

Gold is found in masses and grains along the southern tributaries of the Zambesi, and the discovery of this fact tempted the Portuguese to form settlements on the unhealthy shore and along the banks of the river,—Quilimane, Senna, Tette, &c.

The contrast between the eastern and western coasts of South Africa is very striking. Low sandstone ranges separate the southern sandy desert, the Kalahari, from the sandy shore which is equally parched. The Atlantic coast, for 900 miles north of the Orange river, has not a drop of fresh water.

The low coast plains on the Atlantic to the north of this dry region have, however, for the most part, a tropical vegetation. The ground, in many places saturated with water, bears a tangled crop of mangroves and tall reeds; and hot, pestilential vapours hang over these marshes, never disturbed by a breeze. Such are the lowlands reaching north to the plains of Biafra and Benin and the delta of the Niger.

#### Questions on the Map of Africa.

1. What seas or oceans wash the coasts of Africa? What isthmus connects it with Asia? What strait divides it from Europe? Between what parallels does the continent lie? Compare its position with that of the other continents. What proportion of Africa should you say was tropical? Describe roughly the

form of this continent. With what other would you compare it? Should you say that the character of its coasts favoured commerce and the spread of civilisation, or otherwise? Compare it in this respect with the other two continents of the southern hemisphere.

2. What great African river falls into the Mediterranean? What five states have coasts on this sea? What mountains cross the north-western states? Name any towns in these states. Two island groups off the north-western coast.

3. The great desert which hems in the northern states. Any divisions of the desert. Any caravan stations. What general name is given to the wide region to the south of the desert?

4. What river basin borders the desert on the east? What mountain state supplies feeders of this river? Where does the longest branch obtain its waters? Name any of these equatorial lakes. What states lie within the basin of the Nile? The most mountainous of these. The country formed by its delta. Any towns or stations on the Nile. What country of Asia lies on the further side of the Red Sea?

5. Name the states round the coasts of the Gulf of Guinea. What mountain range backs these states? What various names are given to the coasts of this region? What great river falls into the Gulf? Name a famous town on its upper course. Name any states in the interior of the Soudan. A large lake of this region.

6. What mountains flank the western coasts of South Africa? A great river which breaks through these mountains. States on the western coasts. Towns. A British island considerably to the west of Cape Frio.

7. The great mountain range of South Africa. Five states south of the Tropic. The desert which backs these states. The two chief rivers, one flowing east, the other west. The towns on the coast. The famous cape of the south-west corner.

8. The great river which falls into the Mozambique Channel. Its tributaries. Falls in its course. Towns or stations in its basin. Lakes in its basin. Other lakes of this region of South Africa. What other rivers appear to take their rise in this great system of lakes?

9. What great island lies on the further side of the Mozambique Channel? Its capital city.

10. Name two states on the eastern coast. Two vast summits of the chain which backs Zanzibar. What cape terminates the

eastern peninsula of the continent? By what two African peoples is this region inhabited?

11. Name half-a-dozen capes and as many bays on the coast of Africa, stating exactly the position of each.

12. Name the four great rivers of Africa, as nearly as you can in the order of their size, and state the direction of each, and the waters into which it falls.

13. Describe generally the situation of the mountains of Africa, giving the names of any of the coast ranges.

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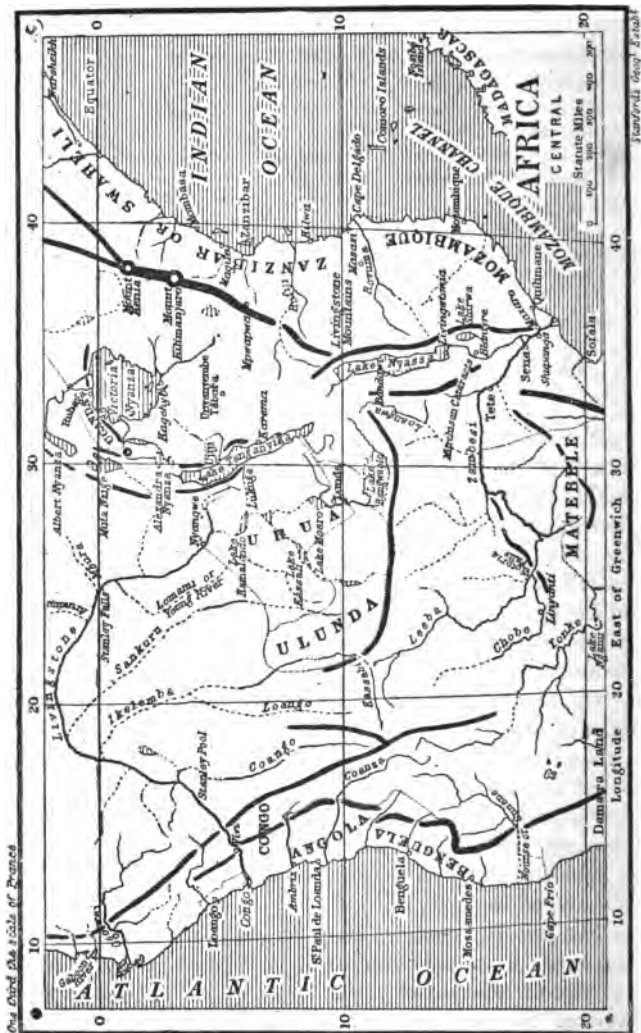
#### DR. LIVINGSTONE'S DISCOVERIES IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Foremost amongst the missionaries to whom we owe much of our knowledge of the interior of South Africa is Dr. Livingstone, a man of scientific learning and burning zeal, who crossed the table-land from sea to sea, in order to establish missions for the conversion and instruction of the natives, spending nearly forty years of his life in exploring the dark regions of Africa south of the equator, where foot of white man had never trodden.

Dr. Livingstone set out from Kolobeng, the advanced post of the missionaries north from the Cape, and after a month's journey over 300 miles of desert, in great want of water, he came to the banks of the Zouga, a noble and very beautiful river, fringed with fruit-bearing trees, and communicating with Lake Ngami, a lake from fifty to seventy miles in length, which he discovered in 1849.

The country north of Lake Ngami is a dead flat for hundreds of miles, crossed by a perfect labyrinth of rivers; on account of which the region is called by the natives Linoka-noka, or "rivers upon rivers." In





many places the meadow-lands are the pasture grounds of the natives, covered with thousands of cattle; but in the forests both horses and cattle fall victims to the tsetse, a poisonous fly fatal to domesticated animals. Here, the traveller's packages must all be borne on the heads of the negroes, for no beast of burden can live in the regions haunted by this terrible pest.

The Zambesi is the great river of this magnificent system, into which all the lesser streams flow, and many of these are great, deep rivers. The natives are quite aware of its importance, since "Zambesi" and the various other names given to it simply mean "the river." After it receives the Chobe, the Zambesi forms one of the most magnificent cataracts known, perhaps finer than Niagara. The river, here 1000 yards broad, suddenly drops into a narrow deep chasm 300 feet deep, and not more than 25 yards in breadth; and again and again it drops through similar ravines lower down. This magnificent cascade is known as the "Victoria Falls." In some places the river is a mile broad, with islands covered with the richest vegetation of large trees, among which the date palm and the lofty palmyra are the most beautiful. The delta of the Zambesi is 300 miles long, and as large as Scotland.

In 1859, Dr. Livingstone discovered the great fresh-water lake Nyassa, which has a length of 250 miles and a width of from 20 to 60 miles. It is not a shallow sheet of water like Lake Ngami, but is of great depth, with water blue as that of the ocean. A range of mountains borders the lake on each side, from which many streams descend. The northern termination of this lake is at present unknown. It lies some 1500 feet above the sea-level, and at the southern end its waters flow off by the river Shiré which carries them

to the Zambesi. In the middle of its short course, this river forms a chain of cataracts forty miles long. To the south-east of this magnificent lake, is the much smaller lake Shirwa; and in the highlands between these two lakes was established the Universities' Mission, under the lamented Bishop Mackenzie, who fell a victim, as much to his own ardour as to the climate.

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#### AFRICAN VILLAGE LIFE.

"After a weary march, we halted at the village of Chitimba. It stands in a woody hollow, among the Manganja hills, and, like all other Manganja villages, is surrounded by an impenetrable hedge of the poisonous euphorbia. This tree casts a deep shade, which would render it difficult for bowmen to take aim at the villagers inside. As strangers are wont to do, we sat down under some fine trees near the entrance of the village. A couple of mats, made of split reeds, were spread for the white men to sit on; and the head man brought a present of a small goat and a basket of meal. The full value in beads and cotton cloth was handed to him in return.

"Meal and peas were then brought for sale. Six yards of blue cotton-cloth, a full dress for man or woman, were produced. Our headman, thinking a part of it was enough for the meal, was going to tear it, when Chitimba remarked that it was a pity to cut such a nice dress for his wife, he would rather bring more meal. 'All right,' said our man, 'but look, the cloth is very wide, so see that the basket which carries the meal be wide too, and add a cock to make it taste nice.' A brisk trade sprang up at once, each being eager

to obtain as fine things as his neighbour, and all were in good humour; women and girls began to pound and grind meal, and men and boys chased the screaming fowls over the village until they ran them down.

"The Manganja country is delightfully well watered. The clear, cool, gushing streams are very numerous. The Manganja live in villages, each of which has its own headman, and he may be ruler over several villages. The people are regarded as his children. All the petty chiefs of a particular portion of country give a sort of allegiance to a paramount chief, called the rondo. They are bound to pay him a small annual tribute, and one of the tusks of every elephant killed; and it is his duty in return to assist and protect them when attacked by an enemy. Part of the Upper Shiré valley has a lady-rondo named Nyango; and in her dominions, women rank higher and receive more respectful treatment than their sisters on the hills.

"The sites of the villages are selected with judgment and good taste, as a flowing stream is always near, and shady trees grow around. The Boala, or spreading-place, is generally at one end of the village; it is a plot, an area of some twenty or thirty yards, made smooth and neat, near the favourite banyan and other trees, which throw a grateful shade over it. Here the men sit at various sorts of work during the day, and smoke tobacco and bang; and here, on the clear, delicious, moonlight nights, they sing and dance.

"The Manganja are an industrious race; and in addition to working in iron, cotton, and basket-making, they cultivate the soil extensively. All the people of a village turn out to labour in the fields. It is no uncommon thing to see men, women, and children hard at work, with a baby lying close by beneath a shady bush.

"Maize is grown all the year round, and almost every family owns a cotton patch which, from the entire absence of weeds, seems to be carefully cultivated. Everywhere we met with it, and scarcely ever entered a village without finding a number of men cleaning spinning, and weaving.

"Iron ore is dug out of the hills, and its manufacture is the staple trade of the southern highlands. Each village has its smelting house, its charcoal burners, and blacksmiths. They make good axes, spears, needles, arrow-heads, bracelets, and anklets. In villages near Lake Shirwa and elsewhere, the inhabitants make crockery, or pottery, making by hand all sorts of cooking, water, and grain pots. Some find employment in weaving neat baskets from split bamboos, and others make fish-nets. A great deal of native trade is carried on between the villages by means of barter, in tobacco, salt, dried fish, skins, and iron.

"Many of the men are intelligent looking, with well-shaped heads, agreeable faces, and high foreheads. We soon learned to forget colour, and we frequently saw among these black faces countenances resembling those of white people we had known in England. The men take a good deal of pride in the arrangement of their hair, and the varieties of style are endless. One trains his long locks until they take the admired form of the buffalo's horns; others prefer to let their hair hang in a thick coil down their backs like that animal's tail; while another wears it in stiff twisted cords, which radiate from the head in all directions. About as many dandies run to seed among the blacks as among the whites. The Manganja adorn their bodies extravagantly, wearing rings on their fingers and thumbs,

besides throatlets, bracelets, and anklets of brass, copper, or iron.

"But the most wonderful adornment, if such it can be called, is the pelele, or upper-lip ring of the women. The middle of the upper lip of the girls is pierced, and a small pin inserted to prevent the puncture closing up. After it has healed, the pin is taken out, and a larger one is pressed into its place, and so on successively, for weeks, and months, and years, until at last a ring, the size of a napkin ring, can be introduced with ease. All the highland women wear the pelele, and it is common on the Upper and Lower Shiré. The poorer classes wear them of bamboo, but the wealthier of ivory, or tin. It is frightfully ugly to see the upper lip projecting two inches beyond the tip of the nose. When an old wearer of a bamboo ring smiles, the nose is seen through the middle of the ring, and the lip is thrown above the eyebrows. 'Why do the women wear these things?' we inquired of an old chief. 'For beauty, to be sure!' was the answer."

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#### DR. LIVINGSTONE ON THE CONDITION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

"Dr. Kirk very properly divides the year into three seasons, a cold, a hot, and a rainy season. The cold period lasts through May, June, and July; the hot prevails in August, September, and October. The rains may be expected during the remaining months of the year.

"At the end of the hot season, everything is dry and dusty; the atmosphere is loaded with blue haze, and very sultry. After the rains begin, the face of the country changes with surprising rapidity. The land-

scape is bathed in a perfect flood of light, and a delightful sense of freshness is given from everything in the morning, before the glare of noon overpowers the eye. The young foliage comes out brown, pale red, or pink, as well as delicate green; and many trees bear beauteous blossoms.

"Myriads of wild bees are busy from morning till night. Insects of all sorts are now in full force; brilliant butterflies flit from flower to flower, with the charming little sun-birds which represent the humming-birds of America; while the volume of sweet sounds poured forth from many a throbbing throat makes an African Christmas seem like an English May.

"It appears strange to have Christmas come in such a cheerful bright season as this; but it was long ago remarked that in Africa everything is contrary; 'wool grows on the heads of men, and hair on the backs of sheep.' Let us add to this, that the men often wear their hair long, the women scarcely ever. Where there are cattle, the women till the land, plant the corn, and build the huts. The men stay at home, to sew, spin, weave, talk, and milk the cows. The men seem to pay a dowry for their wives, instead of getting one with them. The mountaineers of Europe are reckoned hospitable, generous, and brave. Those of this part of Africa are feeble, spiritless, and cowardly, even when contrasted with their countrymen in the plains. Most writers believe the blacks to be savages; nearly all blacks believe the whites to be cannibals. Without going on with these unwise comparisons, we must smile at the heaps of nonsense which have been written about the African intellect. The people all speak a beautiful language, of which very few Europeans acquire an exact knowledge.

"Mr. Moffat has translated the whole Bible into the language of the Bechuana, and has diligently studied this tongue for the last forty-four years; and, though knowing far more of the language than any of the natives who have been reared at the mission-station of Kuruman, he does not pretend to have mastered it fully yet.

"In reference to the status of the Africans among the nations of the earth, we have seen nothing to justify the notion that they are of a different 'breed' or 'species' from the most civilised. We do not believe in any incapacity of the African in either mind or heart. The African is a man with every attribute of human kind. Even when subjected to the miseries of slavery, the negroes spring up irrepressibly and darken half the new continent. They are gifted by nature with physical strength capable of withstanding the sorest privations, and a light-heartedness which enables them to make the best of their miserable lot. But it is only certain tribes which can be brought to endure a life of slavery. No Krooman can be converted into a slave, nor can any of the Zulu or Kaffir tribes be reduced to bondage.

"Would that we could give any description of the horrors of the slave trade! Let us state what we know of one portion of Africa. We were informed by the Consul at Zanzibar that 19,000 slaves from this Nyassa country alone, pass annually through the custom-house of that island. Let it not be supposed for an instant that this number, 19,000, represents all the victims. We never realised the atrocious nature of the traffic until we saw it at its fountain-head. Besides those actually captured, thousands are killed and die of their wounds and famine, driven from their villages by the



slave raid. Thousands perish in war waged for slaves with their own clansmen and neighbours, slain by the lust of gain fostered by the slave purchasers of Cuba and elsewhere. The many skeletons we have seen amongst rocks and woods, by the little pools, and among the paths of the wilderness, attest the awful sacrifice of human life.

"We confess that we do not attempt to describe the productions of the country with that fulness they deserve, nor with that hopeful heartiness we once felt. Nor do we cite the discoveries of Lakes Shirwa and Nyassa, or the patient examination of the Zambesi to a point beyond the Victoria Falls, or other important geographical feats, with any degree of pride. These were all apart from our main design. What we have seen of the slave trade has cast a gloom over all: the natural beauties of the country are all associated with human sorrow and woe."

"The primitive African faith seems to be, that there is one Almighty Maker of heaven and earth; that He has given the various plants of earth to man to be employed by him in the form of medicines as mediators between him and the spirit world; that sin consists in offences against their fellow-men. Evil-speaking, lying, hatred, disobedience to parents, neglect of them, are said to have been all known to be sin, as well as theft, or murder, or adultery, before they knew aught of Europeans or their teaching. The only new addition to their moral code is that it is wrong to have more than one wife.

"Though cheerless enough to a Christian, the African's religion is mild in its character. In one very remote and small corner of the country, called Dahomey, human blood takes the place of the plants which are

used over nine-tenths of the continent; but it would be as much a mistake to think the African religion cruel, as to think that all Africans are cannibals, because human flesh is eaten in one or two places in Africa. Neither do the Africans worship idols: the *fetish* of which we hear so much is simply a horn or rude image worn round the neck, and containing the precious medicine which is to act as a charm in preserving the wearer from harm."

These simple people are, indeed, ready to receive the higher teaching of Christianity. It is true that in settling in many parts of Africa, the missionary goes to almost certain death. On the west coast upwards of forty missionaries had died of the effects of climate before success appeared; but, "the blood of the martyrs is the seed of the Church"; and, in 1861, there were on the west coast 110 principal mission-stations, 13,000 scholars in the schools, and 19,000 members in the churches.\*

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THE DISCOVERIES OF CAPTAINS BURTON, SPEKE,  
GRANT, &c.

While Dr. Livingstone was making these remarkable discoveries, Captains Burton and Speke returned from a journey they made from Zanzibar into the interior of tropical Africa more to the north. They ascended the river Pangany for 120 miles through an unhealthy but rich and rather well cultivated plain, and crossed the broad coast chain of mountains. The interior, at first poor, soon became a luxuriant country, in which tobacco, cotton, and various useful plants are cultivated by a peaceful race of negroes who possess abundance of

\* From 'Expedition on the Zambesi,' Dr. Livingstone.

cows and goats, and know how to manufacture both iron and cotton.

On going into the interior, the travellers discovered Lake Tanganyika, whose position had been pretty accurately described by the natives to Dr. Livingstone. It abounds in good fish, and, as the tsetse fly does not infest this part of Africa, its banks are browsed by the red oxen that are common throughout the country.

At a distance of 200 miles of very lofty mountainous country north-west from Lake Tanganyika, Captain Speke came to a great fresh-water lake, since called the Victoria Nyanza, between 3000 and 4000 feet above the level of the sea, which he believed to be the true source of the Nile, and which he afterwards revisited in company with Captain Grant. On this latter memorable expedition, the two travellers traversed the region of Equatorial Africa from Zanzibar to the upper waters of the Nile, coming out at last on the Mediterranean, in the month of June, 1863. They skirted the western shores of the lake, but seldom sighted its waters, and then struck across for the White Nile.

They were informed by the natives that this stream entered, not far to the west, a second great lake before it appeared as the Nile. Regretting that he was unable himself to visit this second lake, Captain Speke on his arrival at Gondokoro recommended Sir Samuel Baker, who had come up the Nile bringing succour to the expedition, to endeavour to reach it. The advice was taken, and the result was the discovery of the Albert Nyanza, a still grander sheet of water than the Victoria, lying in a deep trough amid lofty mountains and glorious Alpine scenery.

Discovery is still making vigorous progress, but we have not space to describe the doings of later explorers.

The most interesting discoveries, perhaps, are those of Mr. Stanley, who was sent out to search for Livingstone. In March, 1867, news reached England that the great missionary had been murdered; the news proved false, and, about a year after, a letter from himself arrived at Edinburgh, stating that he had been robbed of everything and was in great need of help. Mr. Stanley undertook to find him, and was provided with funds for the enterprise by the proprietors of an American newspaper.

He landed at Zanzibar, pushed inwards through endless jungle and a wide forest country hitherto untrodden by white men, and found the Doctor at Ujiji, on the shores of Lake Tanganyika, looking terribly ill and wasted from the effects of fever and fatigue.

In 1874, Dr. Livingstone's remains received the honour of a place in Westminster Abbey; and, in the same year, Stanley set out to continue the explorations left unfinished by the death of the great missionary. He circumnavigated the Victoria Nyanza, and found its outlet at the north, which is generally considered the true source of the Nile, though that honour probably belongs to the longest of the rivers—yet to be explored—which flow into the lake.

Having sailed to the south of the Victoria Lake, Mr. Stanley did not return to Uganda, but travelled southward through a lovely country of mountain and lake. A new lake, called the Alexandra Nyanza (Nyanza means lake), was discovered: and west of that, all the way to the sea, is a vast unexplored country, supposed to be full of lakes and rivers.

Having been successful with the Victoria, Stanley next circumnavigated the great Lake Tanganyika, in order to discover its outlet. In this he was not suc-

cessful ; he found what he took to be the outlet in the Lukuga Creek ; but the lake appears to be subject to a mysterious rise and fall of its waters, which has not yet been satisfactorily explained.

Crossing the lake, he made for Nyangwe on the Congo, or, as it is now called, the Livingstone river, down which he journeyed until he reached Boma, at its mouth, worn out with the perils of the way ; for he had found the natives far less gentle and friendly than those described by Livingstone. The Congo is supposed to be about 3000 miles in length, and near its mouth it is five or six miles broad, studded with islands, and very deep. Its basin, yet unexplored, offers a field for future adventurous travellers.

### Questions on the Map of Central Africa.

1. What territories occupy the eastern coast plain ? An island off this coast. A cape. Three or four towns on the east coast. This coast plain is backed by mountains :—name two summits to the south of the equator. What is the southern part of the range called ?

2. Name two lakes which lie at the western foot of the Livingstone mountains. Into what great river are their waters carried ? There is a missionary station at the foot of the largest lake,—name it. In what general direction does the Zambesi flow ? Name one or two of its tributaries. Two or three Portuguese towns on its lower course. Any falls in this river and in its tributary, the Shirwa. Water-courses and the boundaries of lakes are frequently broken and undefined in this map,—why so ?

3. A great lake with a familiar name which lies under the equator. What African people have territory on its shores ? Two or three smaller lakes belonging to this system. A long lake further to the south. A “town” on its banks.

4. What great river crosses the equator, and flows into the Atlantic ? Any other names on this map given in honour of the great missionary. Falls in the Livingstone named after a recent

explorer. What other name does this great river bear? A less considerable river to the north.

5. Two or three territories on the western coast. Three towns on the coast. Name three or four of the African peoples who occupy Central Africa, south of the equator. Describe the situation of the mountains of this region.

### ABYSSINIA.

Abyssinia, the ancient Ethiopia, is a country of highlands which skirts the Red Sea, and is about three times the size of England. It is a sort of promontory of the great southern table-land, with a steep mountain edge on the east about 8000 feet in height. No rivers break through this eastern wall, all the Abyssinian tributaries of the Nile flowing westward. Snow-clad mountains, high as the highest of the Alps, are scattered over the surface of the lofty plateau; and it is the melting of the snows which fills to overflowing the channels of the Nile, and causes the fertilising floods which bless the land of Egypt. Towards the west of the plateau lies the beautiful lake of Dembea, forty miles long, the reservoir of the Blue Nile. It lies at an elevation of 6000 feet above the sea, and from its south-eastern corner the Blue Nile escapes by a narrow opening, passing through Senaar on its way to the White Nile.

Like Mexico, Abyssinia is divided into three belts of quite different climate, the low, the middle, and the high.

The lower skirt of the plateau, which is higher than our highest British mountains, has a warm climate and luxuriant vegetation—cotton and sugar-cane, coffee and

One third the scale of France.



Stanford's Geog. Estab.

bananas,—and abounds in the larger wild animals of Africa.

The middle belt, which reaches the height of 9000 feet, has a climate like that of Italy, and is rich in grain and fruits. The high belt, which reaches to 14,000 feet, has a cool climate, with snow on the mountain-tops; and here oxen, goats, and long-woolled sheep find abundant pasturage.

The people appear to prefer the higher parts of the plateau, the low-lying skirts being but thinly peopled. Several distinct peoples are found on the plateau; indeed, the name Abyssinia comes from an Arabic word which means "confusion," of so many races are the inhabitants, and so ill do they agree. The Abyssinians proper are of a brown colour, becoming almost white in the north, with curved noses, animated oval eyes, and symmetrical figures. They are generally brave, active, and adroit.

The Falasha are a people of Abyssinia, having a language and traditions of their own. They are Jews, and the account that they give of their origin is that they came from Jerusalem along with a son of Solomon, and the queen of Sheba. When the Abyssinians renounced Judaism for Christianity, the Falasha adhered to their ancient faith, and they still boast that they are governed by a prince of the house of Judah.

There is no country in the world where there are so many churches as in Abyssinia. Though the country is very mountainous, and consequently the view much obstructed, it is seldom you see fewer than five or six churches, while the view from a commanding point will probably include five times that number. Every great man that dies thinks he has atoned for all his sins if he leaves a fund to build a church. The king builds



many. The situation of a church is always chosen near running water for the convenience of the purifications and ablutions, in which the Abyssinians observe strictly the Levitical law. The churches are all round, with thatched, conical roofs, and are surrounded by a colonnade which forms a pleasant sheltered walk.

On entering the church you put off your shoes, and kiss the threshold and doorposts. The churches are full of miserable daubs of pictures, on parchment, nailed to the walls in a slovenly way.

The Abyssinians, on their conversion to Christianity, received the doctrines of the Greek Church, their first bishop being ordained by St. Athanasius, about A.D. 333.

The history of the country is nothing but a long chronicle of wars, internal or external—now a crusade against the Mahommedans of the plains, now an invasion from that quarter, or a rebellion of one or other of the native princes: for this reason it happens that the residence of the king is at one or other of the military camps scattered over the country. Magdala, which was stormed by the British in 1868, is one of these mountain fortresses. The capital is Gondar, pleasantly placed on the slope of the mountains which descend to Lake Dembea. The houses are chiefly of clay, with pointed thatched roofs—the common style of building within the tropical rains. At the west end of the town is the king's house, a square building flanked with towers.

Small blocks of salt, brought up from the lowlands, pass as a money currency all over the country. Wax, cotton, coffee, gum, and hides are the principal products and articles of trade.\*

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\* Adapted from Bruce's 'Travels in Abyssinia.'

## EGYPT.

From its ancient limits on the delta and banks of the Lower Nile, Egypt has spread abroad in an astonishing way of late years. It is nominally subject to the Sultan of Turkey, but the present race of rulers, men of much vigour and enterprise, have obtained the right to use the title of Khedive, the Arabic for king, though still paying tribute to Turkey. They have pushed the dominions of Egypt along the banks of the Nile as far as the junction with the Atbara; eastward, as far as the shores of the Red Sea; while westward its limits are hardly defined, but certainly reach as far as Darfur, and the oasis of Siwah, thus including Egypt Proper, Nubia, and the Egyptian Soudan.

Thus the Khedive of Egypt had become the most powerful sovereign in Africa, with dominions fully ten times as extensive as the British Isles. Internal improvements—railways, public works, buildings in the European style—were lavishly built by a former Khedive, and to all appearance Egypt was, some few years ago, one of the most promising states of the world. At the present time, however, Egypt and her Khedive are under a cloud: money, to spend on personal luxury, as well as on these public improvements, was borrowed right and left, until at last it became plain that the Khedive had no means of paying his debts. Then the nations of Europe thought it time to interfere; and it has been settled that, for the present, Egypt shall be under English control until she redeems her credit. The present Khedive makes efforts to raise the money he has undertaken to

pay; but, alas! the pressure falls upon the *fellaheen*, or "ploughers"—the agricultural population—whose life is a more bitter bondage than ever the Israelites had to endure at the hands of the Pharaohs. In the meantime, active rebellion in the Soudan, and discontent everywhere, make it no easy task to manage the affairs of this unhappy country.

The fellaheen are the descendants of the old Egyptians and of the Arab invaders of the land. The unmixed Egyptians are called Copts; they are dwellers in towns, and profess Christianity. The pure Arabs are, for the most part, the Bedouins, who are employed in rearing cattle, sheep, and camels, and in escorting caravans. The inhabitants of the Nubian deserts, and of the northern districts of the Soudan, are chiefly nomadic Arabs, "who stride across the plains with erect and graceful figure, armed with spear and buckler, or mounted on the trotting dromedaries." The whole of the Upper Nile basin is occupied by negro tribes. Jews, gipsies, and Europeans form a considerable part of the population of Egypt Proper.

In Egypt Proper, the marvellously fertile delta and banks of the Nile are shut in on both sides by arid deserts. This is a rainless region, except that a few showers occur in the course of the year along the coast of the delta: but from the coast southwards, as far as the junction of the Atbara with the Nile, the excessive drought and heat produce a desert waste, broken only by the narrow strip of glorious fertility which borders the Nile. The cultivable land does not include more than a twentieth part of even Lower Egypt—just the district covered by the annual floodings of the Nile. But here, far and wide over the level delta wave fields of wheat and rice, sugar-cane.

cotton, and indigo ; or rich pastures spread, whereon feed cattle and asses, sheep and goats.

Nubia, the middle region, consists of desert to the north, and grassy steppes in the centre, while the rich vegetation of the tropics marks the south. Millet is the cultivated grain of all the southern tropical region. Here are jungles for the rhinoceros ; crocodiles and hippopotami swarm in the rivers, while the graceful giraffe and the elephant abound in the park-like glades, the last affording the ivory which is the great object of trade in this region. The town of Berber is little but a collection of mud huts, surrounded by acacias and palms. It is the starting place of a caravan route to the Red Sea. The Egyptian Soudan is a well-watered region, becoming more and more fertile and productive towards the south, and merging in a forest region as it enters the equatorial belt.

Khartoum is the capital of the Egyptian Soudan ; it is situated on the Blue Nile, close to its confluence with the White Nile. It has, perhaps, 30,000 inhabitants, and is the great trading place for Central Africa, and for the equatorial lake districts. Caravans with ivory, ebony, and ostrich feathers are sent over the desert to Cairo ; these, and grain, cotton, gum, to be exchanged for European goods, render Khartoum a place of great commercial importance ; and the railroad to Shendy which was at one time projected, would make it still busier as a trading place.

Kordofan, a country of wide plains covered with high brown grass, has been recently brought under Egyptian rule ; as has also Darfur, another unfruitful land except when the rains clothe it with rich pasture.

Passing up the river, Lado is now the chief seat of

the Egyptian Government of the Upper Nile, having taken the place of Gondokoro, an important station, deserted on account of its unhealthiness.

We will close our account with some notes from a writer well acquainted with modern Egypt.

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## Part II.

“On the fourth morning after leaving Malta, at sunrise we sighted the lighthouse of Port Said, on the low flat shore which there meets the Mediterranean.

“A few years ago, and this spot, now occupied by piles of buildings, surrounded by blooming gardens, filled with green trees and tropical flowers, was but a barren sandy waste. But with the opening of the canal, the desert was made to blossom as the rose, the sea was driven back, a safe harbour was created, in which great ships might safely ride, and the twin towns of Port Said and Ismailia (the one at the Mediterranean mouth, the other at the central point of the new water-way) sprang into sudden and lusty life.

“We spent only a few hours at Ismailia, and then took the railway, *vid* Zagazig, to Cairo, a most dusty and fatiguing journey of about seven hours. Zagazig, at which we stopped, *en route*, is really a pretty place, and apparently a prosperous one, with its well-built houses, and storehouses for produce, and its handsome mosques, to provide for its population of 40,000, which is chiefly Egyptian, there being only about 300 Europeans in the place. Among other large cities in the Delta are, Damanhour, Mansourah, Tanta, where the great fairs are held, Rosetta, at the Nile mouth, and Damietta; so that there are cities to be seen outside

of Cairo and Alexandria, though they are seldom visited by tourists.

"For more than half the way after leaving Ismaïlia, we journeyed through the desert, the most bare, bleak, and dreary scene the eye of man can rest upon, an arid, shrubless waste of ever-shifting sand.

"What is needed to save the waste lands of Egypt, in addition to canals for irrigation, is labour, well employed, and not in the slovenly and wasteful way that now prevails.

"But of Egypt's five and a half millions of inhabitants, perhaps a third live in the larger cities and towns, and are not agricultural labourers, Cairo swallows up half a million, Alexandria a quarter of a million, living by various petty trades, the large towns of the Delta, many thousands more; while the young and able-bodied men are constantly carried off by 'conscription' to swell the army.

"The latter half of our journey to Cairo was very agreeable: we had reached the cultivated region, and our way lay through the flat garden-like country with its eternal carpet of verdure in patches of different shades, presenting the appearance of a vast farm from the absence of trees. You pass numerous Arab villages, with their clusters of mud huts—swarming with chickens and children—crowned by the domes and minarets of the small mosques which give a pictorial aspect to their squalor. You see long lines of laden camels swinging by, and hideous water-oxen plodding on, and the inevitable old Arab in the single blue shirt—the sole clothing of the *fellahs*, men and women alike—jogging by on the donkey, so small that the man's legs nearly touch the ground.

"On approaching the Cairo station, the traveller

who has been absent for several years, sees that great improvements have taken place. He can hardly believe his eyes; for, looking up the road which leads into Cairo, where there used to be miles of cultivated fields, he now sees, far as his eyes can reach, miles of well-built and even palatial residences surrounded by gardens. Within the city, the old has given place to the new, and blocks of high buildings have replaced the picturesque old tumble-down houses of mud and wood, four stories high, with jealously latticed windows jutting out into the street. The glory of old Cairo, the great wilderness garden, full of shady sycamores, has disappeared too; giving place to fine buildings and trim gardens. On Sundays and festivals the new gardens are crowded, but not by the natives—these have abandoned the spot, squatting, smoking, and story-telling elsewhere, in more shady and less formal precincts. Here are fine new shops, worthy of Paris or London; and the Khedive and the gentlemen of his court drive by in fine carriages, and even the ladies of the hareem go out in open carriages, and dressed in Parisian fashions, with their faces covered only by a gossamer veil.”\*

The present Khedive has made of Cairo a city like any in Western Europe, but the traveller recalls with regret the sights of the interesting Eastern city of the past.

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### Part III.

Egypt is divided into three parts, Lower Egypt, or the Delta, Middle Egypt, and Upper Egypt, containing, altogether, 113 towns and cities, and over a thousand

\* ‘The Khedive’s Egypt.’

villages. Besides Egypt Proper are three provinces on the Red Sea coast, and the vast province in Central Africa known as the Soudan.

"The chief exports of Egypt are cotton, sugar, and grain; it furnishes Europe with one-eighth of its entire supply of cotton, four-fifths of this going to England. Sugar comes next; the largest portion of which is exported to France, the next to England. Then comes corn, the greatest portion of which goes to England also—ten times as much as to any other country."

Cotton, rice, sugar, beans, barley, maize, and cloves, are cultivated; two or three successive crops being raised in a year off this most fertile land.

The Nile is the life of Egypt. Every year it brings down rich deposits from Abyssinia and regions yet unexplored, which it spreads over the Delta, making it an exhaustless granary and storehouse of food for man.

The cultivation of the sugar-cane is a great grievance to the fellaheen (the rural labourers to whom most of the land really belongs), because the plantations belong to the Khedive, who carries off the men from their own corn-fields, and makes them toil on his sugar plantations without payment or even food. The condition of the fellah is miserable indeed; he is carried off in this way (which is called 'corvée') for the making of canals and all public works; and while he is labouring for the Khedive, his wife bakes him bread from corn grown on his own plot of ground, and brings it to him, for he gets no pay and no food from his employer. It is true, he always owns a bit of land which he farms for himself, but then, the taxes he pays are frightfully heavy: a large share of his dates, of



his corn, of all he has, is taken off as a tax ; and, small as his wants are, he can barely keep enough to live upon. Bread and beans are his food, Nile water his drink, a mud hut his shelter. There could not be a creature of fewer wants than the Egyptian fellah, and it is hard that when he and his family have slaved in the fields from sunrise to sundown, he cannot get enough to meet these.

The natives of the towns are better off; the present Khedive is setting up schools everywhere, and the Arab boys are wonderfully quick, especially in arithmetic and algebra. Until quite lately, no Egyptian would think of sending his daughters to school; but Miss Whately, whose 'Ragged Life in Egypt' is full of interest, succeeded in gathering a school of fellah girls together; and, more lately, one of the wives of the Khedive set up a girls' boarding school—quite free, and open to all classes—in one of the royal palaces, which was speedily filled with little girls of all classes and colours.

For more than thirty years past, Alexandria has been, in fact, a European, and not an Eastern city; the only Oriental features it possesses being its rather poor bazaars, and a population, about half Arab, belonging to the labouring and small shopkeeping class. So Alexandria, like Smyrna and many other cities of the Levant, disappoints the traveller because it looks so European, resembling rather an Italian than an Eastern town. It is still a busy port, though less so than before the opening of the Suez Canal, and it has been improved of late, like Cairo, by the erection of blocks of stone buildings like those of Paris. There is now an air of freshness and bustle about the place, unlike the drowsy aspect of former days.

## UP THE NILE.

Modern Egypt has an interest of its own ; but it is the Egypt of the past which every year draws crowds of visitors to explore the shores of the Nile ; for Egypt contains perhaps the most ancient historical monuments in the world.

Crossing the river from Cairo, we come to Ghizeh and its wonderful Pyramids, which stand in full view before the visitor as soon as he leaves the town. The air is so pure and the plain so level, that they do not appear two miles off though the distance is more than five.

The Pyramid of Cheops, the most northerly of the group, is that usually ascended by travellers. It has been stripped of the triangular casing stones, so that its exterior presents a vast series of broken steps. Each step is about four feet high, and up these the visitor must clamber who would reach the summit, and obtain a view little better than is to be had from the plain.

The manner in which these immense buildings were constructed, and the means by which the vast blocks of almost impenetrable stone were worked and placed at different heights with wonderful exactness, are even now unknown. The chambers of the interior are reached through a long, low, narrow passage, leading from the entrance. Down this stifling shaft the visitor is crammed by Arabs, who stop the little air which might follow him, and clamour all the time for "backsheesh" ; and there is little to be seen within what are supposed to have been the burial chambers of the kings to reward the traveller for his trouble.

A turn of the river carries us into a very lonely scene ; a long series of sandbanks on one side and pyramids on the other, both backed by distant hills,

are all that meet the eye for many miles. The number of these remarkable monuments is greater than is usually imagined. The pyramids of Middle and of Lower Egypt are thirty-nine in number, and from north to south, they stretch over a space of fifty-three miles. The world can show no antiquities so old as the Pyramids: they were ancient to the nations we consider the most ancient. Joseph and Moses must have looked upon them.

In the long, slow sail up the Nile, you have more to amuse you than the broad stream, the flat and fertile plain, the fringing palms, the unspeakably lazy natives squatting on the banks, and the queer rafts, laden with thousands of water-jars: these are interesting enough, but they are soon forgotten by the traveller in the greater interest of the ancient cities whose ruins are scattered on either bank. In one wonderful group he comes upon Thebes, Karnac, and Luxor, containing perhaps the most stupendous monuments of the past that the world affords.

The vast towers of Karnac are the first to come in sight, about a mile and a half from the river; then Luxor is seen—dwelling-houses and ruins strangely mingled. Luxor is now the principal town of the group; its name is derived from El-Uksor, or *the palaces*, in allusion to the noble ruins.

On the opposite bank is "the hundred-gated Thebes," the city which was the boast of ancient Egypt for its crowded temples and palaces.

As the traveller journeys southward, the whole aspect of the country becomes more tropical. After passing Esné, the influence of Nubian manners is visible. Soon the little girls and young women appear in Nubian costume, if costume it may be called—many

ornaments, an apron formed of leathern thongs and decorated with shells and beads, and—nothing else.

In its course through Nubia, the Nile is interrupted by several cataracts, and then flows quietly northward through the desert to its delta on the Mediterranean, receiving no supplies from rain or tributary streams for 1200 miles. Its last tributary is the Atbara, "the Terrible," which rises in the gorges of the Abyssinian highlands. Higher up, the main stream is joined by the Blue Nile, also from Abyssinia. The White Nile has not yet been traced beyond its great reservoir, the Victoria Nyanza. The Ripon and Murchison Falls, and other cataracts, interrupt its upper course. The river continues to rise from June until November, and then continues to fall until May. In August, the dam near Cairo is cut with many ceremonies, allowing the river waters to fill the innumerable canals which spread over the delta.

#### Questions on the Map of the Basin of the Nile.

1. Into what sea does the Nile discharge itself? Judging roughly by the scale, what should you say was the length of this great river? Name towns at the two chief mouths of the delta. How is the Mediterranean connected with the Red Sea? Name three or four towns on the Canal. An important town of Egypt on the Mediterranean coast. The chief town on the Nile. In what division of Egypt are the Pyramids? What are the divisions of Egypt? What deserts has the river on the right? On the left?

2. What line marks the position of the First Cataract? What names appear between the First Cataract and Cairo, on the right bank? On the left? Within what country are the Second and Third Cataracts? Name any towns on the Nile within Nubia.

3. What is the last tributary the Nile receives on its way to the sea? A town at its confluence with the main stream. Another town on the Atbara. In what mountainous country does it take its

rise? Name two towns in this country. What other branch of the Nile rises in Abyssinia? From what lake does it proceed? A town on its left bank. A town at its confluence with the White Nile.

4. What provinces are on either side of the White Nile? What tributaries does it receive? What name does the main stream bear in its upper course? In what equatorial lake does it appear to have its source? What smaller lake does it drain? Falls in this part of its course. A town on either bank of the *Bahr el Jebel*. What is the general direction of the Nile? What other great river has its source in the equatorial lakes?

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### THE SOUDAN.

*Soudan*, or the "land of the blacks," stretches from sea to sea across the continent between the Sahara and the southern table-land. A great part of this region is yet unexplored, and our knowledge is confined to those parts which have been crossed from time to time by adventurous travellers.

A great part of the Soudan, which contains many kingdoms and trading towns, is very fertile country. The abundance of water from lakes and rivers and the tropical rains, together with the tropical heat, make it an easy task for the industrious natives to produce crops of rice, millet, and other grains sufficient for their wants, although they till the land in the rudest way. Gold is found in the river courses, and elephants abound in the forests; but it is in slaves, rather than in gold and ivory, that the natives carry on their briskest trade.

In the very centre of this fine country lies Lake Chad, almost like a sea, and receiving many large rivers: here is the trading town of Kábara, and here is

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Stanford's Geog. Etab.

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the city of Timbuctu, the wonderful city "paved with gold," the scene of many a nursery tale, and which really is a busy trading city, though the less said about its paving of any kind the better.

Across all the central basin of the Niger, and far to the east, into the unknown regions of Central Africa, extend the states which have been formed by the Haussa peoples, the most intelligent of all the races of the Soudan, and the most zealous Mohammedans. Timbuctu is their best-known city.

Senegambia is the name given to the coast regions watered by the Senegal and Gambia rivers: three European powers, France, Portugal, and Britain, have settlements here.

Portugal claims a large extent of coast-land, but has really only a few "factories," or trading places, in its possession.

The possessions of France extend all along the left bank of the lower Senegal river, St. Louis being the chief town.

The greater part of the Gambia river, which is navigable for 300 miles from the sea, is in the hands of the British, who have the important little colony of Bathurst at the mouth of the river, and several stations higher up.

Sierra Leone, the "lion hill," three days' voyage south of the Gambia, forms part of the same colony. Here, on the slope of hills 2500 feet high and clothed with rich verdure, is Freetown, the capital of the colony. Founded by English philanthropists, Sierra Leone was a refuge for slaves captured by our vessels along the coast, and the descendants of these freed negroes form the bulk of its population.

The trade of the Senegal is chiefly in the gums

yielded by the acacia forests which cover the country north of the river; farther south, the foreign factories trade in palm-oil, from which the greater part of our soap is made at home, and in hides and wax.

Going south along the coast, we come to the negro republic of Liberia—the land of the freed. In 1822 a grant of land on this part of the African coast was obtained, with a view to settling here the freed slaves who were found to be rather in the way in America. Some American philanthropists considered that here the negroes would be in their native land, and might till the soil, collect palm-oil, and become in time a flourishing colony. The new colony flourished so far that, in course of time, it proclaimed itself a republic on the model of that of the United States: but the American negroes have carried into their free State the indolent habits learnt in slavery, and so the republic is not flourishing as greatly as was expected.

The climate is dangerous to Europeans, though not to the negro. Of all the many plants which cover the soil, the oil-palm is the most valuable, and its bunches of red and yellow fruit often have a thousand oil-yielding plums in each, the bunch weighing in some cases half a hundredweight. Dye-woods, ebony, and gum-trees, coffee, sugar, and cocoa flourish here.

Passing by the Ivory Coast, affording ivory no longer, we come to the Gold Coast of Guinea, which is now entirely in the hands of the British. It consists of a coast plain reaching inland for 300 miles, and backed by forest-covered hills. It is rich in the oil-palm, but the climate is excessively dangerous to Europeans, while the tsetse fly makes it impossible to keep cattle or horses here. The natives are of various negro tribes. The chief British station is that of Cape



Coast Castle, named from its great church-like fort on the water's edge, beside the filthy native town above which the European residences peep out from among the woods. Elmina, "the mine," is one of the largest towns.

Behind the Gold Coast lie the lands of the warlike negro people called the Ashantees, the greater part of whose country consists of forest jungle. The king used to dwell at Coomassie, a large city before it was destroyed by the British forces in the war of 1872.

To the west of the river Volta lies the famous negro kingdom of Dahomey, notorious for its barbarous customs. In the walled town of Abomey dwells the fierce king, guarded by his Amazons—an army of terrible *women-soldiers*.

A little further on is the town of Lagos, belonging to Britain; it is the most considerable seaport of all this part of West Africa, in regular communication with Liverpool by steamers, which carry home cargoes of palm-oil and cotton, of which there is an unailing supply.

Next we reach the dead levels of the Niger delta, the twenty-two chief channels of which are separated by mangrove-covered swamps. The navigation of the Niger, the establishment of which cost many lives from fevers and attacks by the natives on its banks, is now regularly carried on by six or seven steamers which ascend from the Atlantic to the factories at the confluence of the Binue, and even higher up the main river, exchanging European goods for ivory and palm-oil. These vessels, however, require to be well armed. The town of Abo at the head of the delta is in the very centre of the oil region. Lukoja is also an important trading town, where the negro Bishop Crowther has a mission station.

Beyond the Niger delta are the estuaries of the Old Calabar and Cameroons rivers, which have been called the "oil rivers" of West Africa, from the enormous supply brought down them to the coast. Here the European traders live in hulks anchored in the rivers which serve as shops where all kinds of European goods are bartered for the oil which is melted down and stored for shipment in sheds on the shore.

We must here say a word of the east and west coasts, south of the Soudan. The Portuguese claim, in right of discovery, all the land on the west coast between the mouth of the Congo and Cape Frio. In the early days of the Portuguese occupation, earnest missionaries came hither to teach the people, and to this day many of the natives can read and write in Portuguese: but towards the south, the natives are in a very savage state, living by hunting, with spear and knob-stick, the antelope, zebra, and wild buffalo; hyenas, jackals, and leopards infest some districts.

Coffee grows wild; cotton is cultivated in patches all over the land, and palm-oil is abundant.

St. Paul de Loanda, the capital of the colony, is for the most part a European town. How ill-governed the colony is, is shown by the fact that there is not yet one good road in all the country.

EASTERN AFRICA, south of Abyssinia, is occupied by two great African peoples, the Somali and the Gallas, both very distinct from the negroes. The Somali are tall, slight, and agile, and slightly darker than the Arabs, their lips and noses are almost Grecian, but their hair is woolly like a negro's. Their country is the eastern promontory of Africa which ends in Cape Gardafui, a land into which Europeans have hardly penetrated

at all. It appears to be a great pasture land, where gazelles, zebras, and antelopes roam about in vast herds, where the ostrich, giraffe, and elephant are abundant, and where the natives rear great herds of camels, ponies, cows, and fat-tailed sheep.

The immense country of the Gallas reaches from Abyssinia 900 miles southward. This country also remains unexplored, but it appears to be a prairie-like country, a continuation of the highlands of Abyssinia.

The island of Zanzibar is peopled by a mixed race, for the most part Arabic; they are zealous Mohammedans, and are the great traders of Eastern Africa. They are under the government of a sultan, whose dominion extends for some distance along the coast of the mainland. The white houses of Zanzibar town, on the western side of the island, look well from the sea, but the town has dirty and narrow streets. It is the chief trading place on the East African coast, and carries on a busy commerce in ivory, cloves, pepper, hides, and cotton goods.

In all Eastern and Central Africa south of the Soudan, the place of beasts of burden is taken by porters, or *pagazi*, who march along in single file, carrying on their heads the bales of cloth or of beads which are to be exchanged in the interior for ivory. The tsetse fly is the plague of the district, and no domesticated animal can survive its bite, wherefore men have to do the work performed elsewhere by oxen, horses, or camels.

All the coast-land of South-east Africa, from near Cape Delgado to Delagoa Bay, is claimed by the Portuguese, though they really occupy only a few scattered points. The possession as a whole is named the province of Mozambique, and is placed under a governor

appointed by the Crown of Portugal. The town of Mozambique, which stands on a small coral islet close to the mainland, is the capital; it is a town of narrow streets with white houses. Quilimane, Senna, and Tette, are, as we have seen, interesting in connection with the discoveries of Dr. Livingstone; indeed, the great Lake Nyassa which was discovered by him is in Portuguese territory. On a promontory of its southern shores, the mission station of Livingstonia was established in 1876, and at the same time, the first steam-vessel placed on any African lake was launched on its waters. A second mission station named Blantyre has since been founded in the hilly country south of the lake: and more recently still, a company of merchants of Glasgow has placed a trading steamer on the Lower Zambesi, to keep up communication between the coast and the cataracts of the Shiré, past which a good road is being made.

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#### THE SAHARA.

The Sahara is an immense region, occupying the whole of Africa north of the Soudan, with the exception of the mountainous states of the north-east and the green valley of the Nile. It is fully twelve times the size of France, and derives its name from the Arabic word *Sára*, meaning "desert."

It is needless to say that the Sahara is a terrific sandy waste, boundless to the eye as the ocean, where the dry heated atmosphere is like a red vapour, where the very air is sand, and the sand is heaped in ever-changing waves by the scorching winds; where, at times, the burning wind of the desert is the blast of death.

We have been accustomed, however, to think of the Sahara as a vast sea of sand: this is a mistake: a belt of sand-hills, or dunes, nearly 300 miles in width, crosses the whole of its northern border. But now that European travellers have passed this northern border, it is found that the interior is made up of table-lands, sometimes strewn with sharp stones, and sometimes covered with small pebbles: and between the plateaus are low-lying plains.

The western half of the desert is more utterly barren than the eastern. In some places it consists of dreary, black rocks, forming ridges which lie so close that the camels can scarcely pick their way between them; while the more open parts are vast tracts of burning sand heaped by the wind into shifting ridges; the frightful heat is increased by the burning wind called the Samiel or Simoom.

Forbidding as it is, this desert is not unpeopled, but contains many little-known countries and kingdoms scattered over its vast area. The inhabitants of the western region are Moorish and Berber tribes, wandering herdsmen who contrive to keep great herds of camels, sheep and oxen, a wild robber race, though settled under "sultans." The centre of the Sahara is occupied by the *Taurej*, a Berber people, tall and handsome, the horse-guards of the caravans in their passage across the desert; they wear a shawl, called the "litham," wound round face and head as a protection against the blown sands of the desert. The oasis-land of Tidikelt is occupied by them, and here are from 300 to 400 little oasis states forming a confederation of republics: the hilly kingdom of Air, ruled over by a sultan, belongs to the *Taurej* tribes.

The eastern portion of the desert is inhabited by

the Tibbus, a pastoral people, fierce and treacherous, who are supposed to be nearly allied to the negroes of the south; they are zealous Mohammedans.

How is it that this barren, rainless, riverless region, of burning days and almost freezing nights, can support even the small and scattered population which exists upon it? Because, scattered over the whole of the desert, though more frequent in the eastern half, are fertile tracts called "oases," where ever-flowing springs spread delightful verdure, where the date-palm, the tree of the desert, affords shade and grateful fruit, where rice, maize, and barley are sometimes grown, and ferns and acacias gather round the springs.

These oases, which prove that the Sahara is desert only from lack of moisture and not from the nature of the soil, are the homes of the most favoured amongst the desert tribes, and are the halting places where the caravans lay in a fresh stock of water. A thorny ever-green shrub serves as fodder for the camels in passing through some of the dreary regions between the oases.

Several of these oases occur in the tract to the west of the Nile, which is sometimes called the Libyan Desert; the largest of them, known as the Great Oasis, extends about ninety miles from north to south. But from this tract southward to the province of Darfur, a distance of 700 miles is passed without meeting with a single inhabitant, though springs of water, few and far between, occur for the refreshment of the traveller.

The great caravan routes run generally from north to south, from the fertile countries of the Soudan on the south to the Mediterranean. One route unites Timbuctu with Tafilet in Southern Morocco. Several routes from Morocco, Algeria, and Tunis, centre in the

busy markets of the oasis-land of Tidikelt, and pass thence also to Timbuctu ; while the greatest thoroughfare of the Sahara is the track which leads from Tripoli, through Murzuk in Fezzan, by the salt mines of Belma, to the countries round Lake Chad.

"The commerce of the Sahara consists mainly in the transport of ostrich feathers, slaves, gold-dust, and ivory from the Soudan northward to the Mediterranean ports, and the carrying back across the desert of manufactured goods, such as cottons, cutlery, and trinkets of all sorts, to the negro countries in the south. It is estimated that fully 10,000 slaves pass northward by the Murzuk route every year, and this traffic has continued so long, and is accompanied by such hardships, that the route might be followed with no other guide than the blanched skeletons of those who have fallen during the terrible march. The salt of the Sahara beds also gives rise to considerable trade." \*

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#### THE BARBARY STATES.

The four states which occupy the southern coast-lands of the Mediterranean, stretching between Egypt and the Atlantic, are known as the Barbary States—magnificent countries, which might be made to produce most abundant crops. History and the ruins of many cities attest their former splendour ; and even now, here are many populous commercial towns, and much grain is raised, though a great part of these valuable kingdoms is badly cultivated or not cultivated at all.

But it is only to the north of the mountains that this

\* Keith Johnston.

region is so fertile ; from the northern edge of the desert to the foot of the Atlas are vast pasture-lands without a tree—an ocean of verdure, inhabited only by wandering tribes who pasture their flocks on the grassy steppes. Beyond the steppes, these states reach far down into the Sahara itself.

We see by the map that the western half of these coast-lands is a mountain-mass rising like an island between the sea and the desert beyond. This island-like mass is called by the Arabs *Maghreb*, or “the west,” and comprises the chief portions of the empire of Morocco, the French possession of Algeria, and the Turkish regency of Tunis.

This highland is formed in the west by the Atlas mountains, whose highest summits (about 11,000 feet) rise suddenly, rugged and awful, from the plain.

In Algeria and Tunis, the highland takes the form of a broad, high table-land, backed by mountain ranges on each side. The land rising from the Mediterranean to the mountains is called the *Tell* country, and is wonderfully rich and fertile. Between the outer and inner mountain ranges is nothing but a dreary monotonous belt of bare table-lands, dotted over with a long chain of brackish lakes.

The southern border range descends to the desert, which is here, as we have seen, clothed with grass in the spring, and affords pasturage for the herds of the Arabs. At the eastern foot of the mountains, lie low marshes and quicksands, which extend inland from the head of the Gulf of Cades for a distance of 240 miles, and lie sometimes as much as forty feet below the level of the Mediterranean. A rocky barrier only about ten miles wide separates this chain of depressions from the Mediterranean, and a scheme for cutting through



this obstacle and allowing the sea-water to flow in has recently been considered by the French Government. Were this done, a great pond about as large as Lake Ontario might be formed, and the evaporation from its surface might make the desert lands round it fertile; but it would be too shallow for the purposes of navigation.

The most westerly of the Barbary States is Morocco, the land of the Moors. The Moors, or Arabs, are the ruling race, who dwell in towns and live by trade; but the Berbers far outnumber the Moors, and these dwell in tents or tent-villages, and live by cattle-rearing or by tilling the ground. Both Moors and Berbers have slim, sinewy forms, black fiery eyes, and black hair. The Moors are, for the most part, descended from those Moors who held Spain for nearly eight hundred years, and were driven out by the Christians in the fifteenth century.

The Emperor or Sultan of Morocco is a Moor, and his rule is absolute as far as it extends; but fully two-thirds of the country, on the Atlas range and beyond, is in the hands of Berber mountain chiefs, who pay little heed to any sultan.

The Sultan keeps court alternately in the cities of Morocco, Fez, and Mequinez. The city of Morocco lies near the base of the Great Atlas, and is surrounded by immense gardens and orchards. The streets leading from the chief gates are wide, but in other parts of the city are narrow and filthy. The pride of Morocco is the "Mosque of the booksellers." Fez is a larger city in the north, placed between two hills. Tangier, beyond the Strait of Gibraltar, is the chief port of the country.

Leather-making, which is carried on all over the country, and the making of the red caps of Fez, are

the only manufactures of Morocco. An active trade is kept up in importing European goods, such as cottons, trinkets, gunpowder, arms, &c., and in sending these by caravans into the interior of Africa by way of the Sahara. These caravans form great itinerant markets: on their way across the desert they take up loads of salt, which, with other articles, is exchanged in the Soudan for gold-dust, ostrich feathers, gums, and slaves, to be brought to Morocco.

The French province of Algeria is almost as large as France itself, but its frontier stretches far into the desert; the Tell country which borders on the Mediterranean is the part of Algeria which is fertile and beautiful. This is a rich and lovely land, like the opposite coasts of Europe; oleander and myrtle scent the air, and the orange, the olive and the fig, the vine and the pomegranate, flourish in this delicious climate. Besides the rich fruits of the south, tobacco, the sugar-cane, cotton, and enormous quantities of corn are cultivated in this garden-like country.

The Atlas itself is, here, not so much a mountain range as a wide plateau, with long valleys and narrow ravines, and is fit for cultivation to the very summit. "Forests crown its head: its valleys once provided imperial Rome with wheat, and are now alive with herds of cattle and horses." Among its forest trees are the cedar, the oak, carob, and cork-tree; and here are whole groves of lemon, orange, olive, and other rich fruits. Here, in the Atlas, are also valuable mines of iron, lead, copper, and zinc; and the French conquerors of the country have brought knowledge and skill to the working of these mines which were of little use to the native population.

The whole of the Atlas, excepting the barren southern

slope, as well as the coast plains, is included in the fertile Tell country, of which the southern tribes say, "The Tell is our mother."

The desert plains to the south of the Atlas are occupied by Arab tribes, the wandering pastoral Bedouins of the desert. The warlike Kabyles, or Berbers, hold the mountains, and till the soil; while the Moors are the peaceable folk of the towns. These three races have little love for one another, but they are bound together by a common religion—that of Mohammed.

Until within the last fifty years, Algeria was governed by its own Deys, and an evil reputation Algeria had for the pirates who infested the Mediterranean and the lawless soldiers who filled its cities with riot and murder. At last, in 1830, the French landed on its coasts. They soon took the lovely city of Algiers; but the mountain fortresses were a different matter, and the conquest of Algeria was not completed for seventeen years, and then at a grievous sacrifice of life and treasure. The French have done their best for a country that has yielded them little in return: they have established schools, made roads, drained swamps, made many an oasis in the desert-south by sinking artesian wells, and have proved, on the whole, merciful and kindly conquerors to the unmanageable Moors.

Algiers, the capital city, is charming; like an ivory fan in a fair lady's hand, says one of its French admirers: and as the buildings of the streets and terraces are all white-washed and are built upon ground gradually rising from the sea, and are set in groves of orange and pomegranate, the comparison is not a bad one. The new French streets are wide and straight; the old Moorish streets, narrow, winding, and dirty, in spite of constant white-washing, but far more pic-

turesque than the handsome new quarters. Hats and turbans, French dames in high-heeled boots and Paris bonnets, and Moorish ladies, thickly veiled, in clumsy slippers, and enveloped from head to foot in sack-like garments of black silk, the equipages of London or Paris and the camel of the desert, all jostle one another in the streets of Algiers. Its delicious climate draws many invalids to winter, with the swallows, in Algiers.

Oran is a handsome town, rather Spanish than Moorish in character. Bona is a trading port. At La Calle is a settlement of coral fishers, mostly Neapolitans, who go through much toil and danger to get the lovely red coral—the finest anywhere. Constantine, built on the top of a perpendicular cliff, 800 feet high, is one of the famous strongholds of the world.

The State of Tunis, which is not much larger than Scotland, is governed by its own Bey, subject to some direction from the Sultan of Turkey. It is like the other two states in its physical character. The Arabs and the Berbers hate one another here as in Algeria, and as the Arabs are the stronger, they keep the Berbers apart and oppress them greatly. Silk, "burnous" mantles, red caps, leather, and pottery, are manufactured. There is not much cultivation, but olive groves spread over the hills, and date plantations give their Arabic name to the lowlands. The walled city of Tunis is the capital, whose narrow streets are thronged with picturesque Eastern crowds. About twelve miles from Tunis is the site of the ancient Carthage, one of the famous cities of the past. Kairwan is one of the sacred cities of Islam, and neither Jew nor Christian is allowed to live within its walls. Coral is found abundantly all along the coast of Tunis.

The country of Tripoli is a province of the Ottoman

empire. Here the people are chiefly Berber tribes, the few Turks holding the offices of government. A low range called the Black Mountains crosses the country, and the valleys and the mountain slopes are fertile, producing grain, tobacco, fruits, cotton, and silk in abundance. The rest of the land, to the north and south of the mountains, is like the Sahara, both in climate and in its landscape of bare grey desert, and cloudless blue sky. Beyond the desert strip, to the south, is the oasis-land of Fezzan.

Tripoli, the capital, standing on a rocky tongue of land, is the great mart of trade with the Soudan. The trade in ostrich feathers is the most important. The direct route to the Soudan leads south through the cluster of garden-like oases of Fezzan.

### Questions on the Map of North-West Africa.

1. At what point does Africa approach most nearly to Europe? Two towns on the African side of the straits. Three or four towns on the Mediterranean shores.

2. Describe the position of the Atlas mountains. What country do they fill, chiefly? Its chief town. What is the general course of the streams that rise in the Atlas chain, (a) on the north side, (b) on the south side?

3. What are the southern mountains of this great shoulder? What is the great river of this region? Where does it rise? Describe its course. Any towns on its banks. Territories through which it flows. Between what towns does it divide into two streams? What other names does the Niger bear in different parts of its course? What general name is borne by the region drained by the Niger?

4. Two African kingdoms to the south of the Kong mountains. Their chief towns. What five names are borne by the different parts of this south coast? What general name includes the whole? Where are Lagos, Cape Coast Castle, and Liberia? A town in

Liberia. What arm of the Atlantic washes this coast? A British possession further north. Its town.

5. Two rivers which rise in the most northern branches of the Kong mountains. Settlements on their lower courses. A town in each.

6. The Great Desert occupies the central region shown on the map,—what towns or stations mark the existence of oases?

7. Name four capes on this African coast. Two groups of islands off the north-west. To what states do they belong? Is the whole of this western shoulder of Africa tropical?

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### SOUTH AFRICA.

Almost the whole of South Africa belongs to Britain: a short time ago we might have said that the whole of the land to the south of the Tropic of Capricorn acknowledged the authority of Britain—with the exception of the Orange River Free State: but at the present time, the Dutch “Boers,” or farmers, of the Transvaal have declined British rule, and the state of affairs in the new colonies of the west is rather unsettled. The older colonies are Cape Colony proper and Natal.

This rich possession has not been an easy one for the British either to take or to hold. In the first place, the Dutch had seized much of the land before us, and have been all along jealous of British interference, the more so because the British have endeavoured to protect the natives against Dutch oppression. In the second place, much of South Africa is peopled by the exceedingly warlike race of Kafirs, and no less than seven Kafir wars have been fought, by the Dutch or the British, to secure the European colonies.

The British first gained possession of Cape Colony in 1806. The Dutch settlers were greatly dissatisfied with

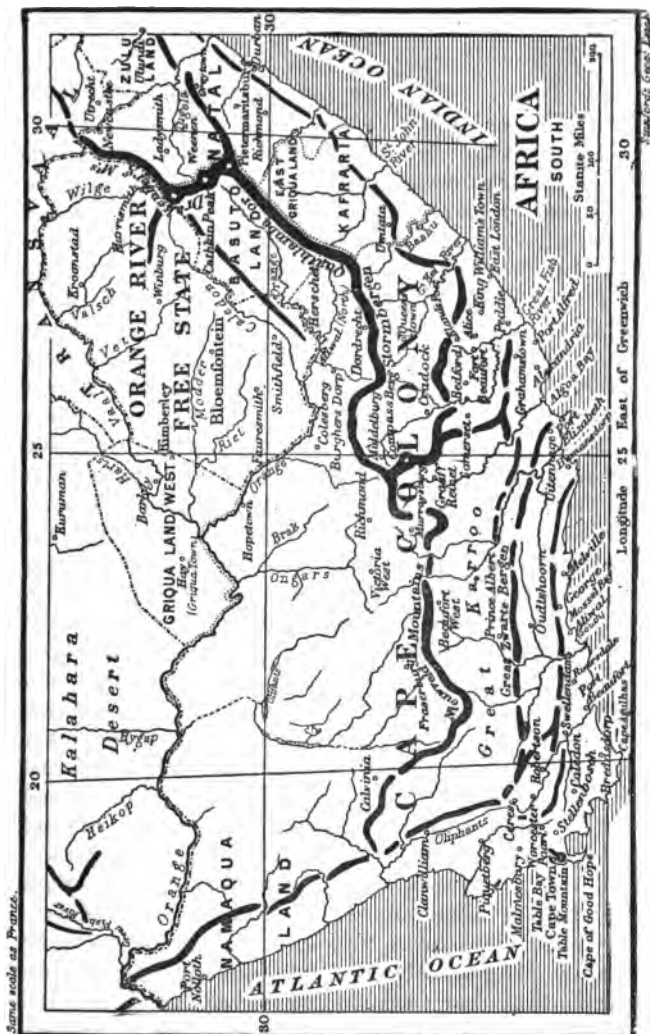
British rule, and at length, when all British slaves were emancipated in 1833, the Dutch were so disgusted, and so bent upon keeping their slaves, that many thousands of them left the Cape Colony, and marched with all their belongings northwards across the Orange river and the Drakenberg mountains. These divided into three parties, one forming what is now the colony of Natal, another the Orange State, and a third settled in the Transvaal. No sooner had the Boers settled in Natal, than they were set upon and massacred by the Zulu Kafirs at a place which bears the name of Weenen ("weeping") to this day. A war followed; the British interfered; and the end of it was that Natal became a British colony.

The Kafir wars resulted in slice after slice of the Kafir country being added to Britain; and of late years many of the chiefs have submitted peaceably to British rule.

The colony of Griqualand West, a country about the size of Switzerland, was held by a mixed people, half Dutch, half Hottentot, when a great discovery of diamonds was made there. Thousands of Europeans rushed thither at once, from all parts of the world; and it became necessary for the proper government of this unsettled population that the country should be brought under British rule: so, in 1871, the Griqua chief ceded his rights, and Griqualand West (or the Diamond Fields) was annexed to Cape Colony.

The British colonies, which are as large as the United Kingdom and France put together, are as yet but thinly peopled.

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## CAPE COLONY.

The Cape Colony occupies the extremity of the continent from the Orange river west and south to the ocean. It is nearly four times as large as England, and is a mountainous country, rising step by step from the seaboard to the interior. These steps are really mountain ranges which cross the country from east to west, bearing different names in different parts. The mountain slopes nearest the sea are the pleasantest and most habitable parts of the colony, and here are villages, corn farms, vineyards, orchards, and tobacco plantations.

The Zwarteborgen are the most inland of these pleasant southern highlands. Beyond these mountains lie the wide, undulating plains called the *Great Karroo*, where water is scarce, and farms are few, and the water channels which furrow the surface are dry except after thunderstorms. The land here is treeless; in some parts stunted bushes are thinly scattered; and at most times of the year the prospect is arid and dreary. But after rain, as if by enchantment, the whole plain is covered with a lovely green vegetation, brilliant with flowers of every hue. The heaths of Cape Colony have a world-wide fame, as have the bulbous plants and orchids which cover the ground in September and October with a sheet of gaudy blossoms. Thorns and prickles are characteristic of many South African plants; and some trees, such as the "dornboom," have spikes which have been compared to ox horns. The *Karroo* is divided into great "sheep runs," and is the chief wool-yielding district; the fine, close-curling wool of the South African sheep finding its way largely into the Yorkshire mills. To the north of the Great Karroo is a

long mountain range which contains Compassberg (8000 feet), the highest mountain of Cape Colony; and these heights unite to the east with the Drakenbergen, which faces the Indian Ocean.

In general, the streams of the Cape Colony are like those of Algeria at the opposite extremity of the continent, becoming furious torrents after rain, but dwindling down almost to dryness at other seasons. Not one of them is of much use for navigation. The largest, the Orange river, is of no use at all for commerce, because its mouth is blocked up by a sandbank, and its course is obstructed by rapids and falls. The Great Fish River is generally dry in winter, and rises suddenly, as much as thirty feet in a few hours, after summer thunder showers.

The Cape Colony is not a hot country; winter frosts are known, and the hottest summer days are no warmer than the summer days of Southern Europe; though of course the seasons fall at opposite times—January in midsummer and July in midwinter. The uncertainty of the rains is a great drawback to the climate of the interior; sometimes in the Karroo there is no rain for two or three years; then, when it does come, it is in sheets; not rain, but water falling in streams. Parts of the west coast are even worse off in this respect than the interior; on the coast-land about the mouth of the Orange river rain is almost unknown. Round the coast-lands of the south and east, however, the rainfall is about as great as in England; and these are the farming regions, where vast crops of wheat are grown, as well as maize, oats, and barley. The grapes of Constantia in the peninsula of the Cape of Good Hope are said to be the finest in the world.

But the wool of their innumerable sheep is the chief

export of the colonists; and it is most remarkable how sheep and goats have increased since the larger wild animals—the lion and leopard, giraffe and elephant—have been driven northwards by the advance of civilised man. Though the forest lords have disappeared, the Karroo is still the great hunting-ground of the colonists, and wonderful is the variety of animal life in these regions.

Among the curious sights of the colony are long lines of draught oxen dragging the great canvas-covered waggons; for these are still the only means of travelling or of conveyance wherever railroads have not been made. A new and strange industry of the colony is that of ostrich-farming, the birds being fenced in and stabled like sheep or horses, to be plucked of their valuable feathers when these are fully grown; their eggs are hatched in artificial nests warmed by means of hot water. Near the lower Orange river is the copper mine of Ookiep, one of the richest in the world.

Of the inhabitants, the Europeans are now the most numerous,—British and Dutch, with some French, Germans, and Portuguese. There are now very few pure Hottentots within the colony, though these were the only inhabitants of the central and western regions at the time of its discovery. Those who still live south of the Orange river are of pale, yellow-brown colour, generally under-sized, and indolent and light-hearted in disposition.

The Kafirs form by far the largest part of the native population in the eastern districts. They are altogether different from the Hottentots; tall, dark-brown in colour, active and well-made, a warlike, nomadic people not given to agriculture. Many thousands of them in the colony can no longer be called savages, but behave like

civilised people, wear clothes, and understand English or Dutch.

Cape Town, at the foot of Table Mountain, is the capital; it has quite the air of a European town, with tramways, railway stations, gardens, and gas lamps. It lies within the south-western peninsula of the colony which ends in the famous Cape of Good Hope and contains Table Mountain. This is the most beautiful part of the country, with grand mountains and rich woodland scenery.

The second town of the colony is Port Elizabeth, a bustling seaport, full of warehouses and stores. Huge waggons bring down the wool and hides of the interior to be shipped here, and they carry back stores for the villages. Grahamstown ranks next in importance.

Of the remaining divisions of South Africa we have not room to say much.

KAFRARIA is the country eastward of the Cape Colony proper, lying along the slope from the Drakenberg range to the Indian Ocean. There is no particular reason why this should be called Kafirland any more than any other part of the wide region of Eastern Africa which the Kafirs inhabit, except that here Europeans have come most into contact with the natives. Some eight or nine districts are now under the control of British magistrates: Basutoland, which includes the mountains and valleys round the sources of the Orange river, was the last district added to the colony. The Basutos belong to the great Bechuana group of Kafirs, and are superior to most of the other nations in intelligence and industry.

NATAL is about half the size of Scotland, and reaches down from the edge of the Drakenberg to the Indian

Ocean. The country is covered for the most part with wooded mountains and hills, and has many constant streams in the fertile valleys which are well stocked with cattle, sheep, and horses. There are many sugar estates in the lowlands, and coffee, maize, and wheat are largely grown. The climate is both healthy and pleasant. The inhabitants are chiefly Kafirs, but as these have no love for farm-work, Hindu "coolies" have been introduced to work on the plantations. Nearly half the European settlers, Dutch and British for the most part, are collected in the two towns of the colony, the seaport of Durban, or Port Natal, and Pietermaritzburg, the seat of government.

The ORANGE FREE STATE is reached by long, rough waggon routes through Natal. It is a country somewhat larger than Ireland, and consists of high grassy plains, dotted here and there with little "kopjes" or rocky hills. Sheep-rearing is the chief business both of the Dutch farmers and of the Kafirs, and wool is the chief export. Bloemfontein is the capital, where the Council and President of this Dutch republic meet.

The TRANSVAAL, as its name implies, lies beyond, or northward of, the river Vaal. It is a considerable country, about as large as Great Britain and Ireland together. It is a plateau, about 3000 feet high, bounded on the east by the high Drakenberg mountains, and crossed by one or two low hill-ranges. The climate is pleasant; there are wide pastures, and the rearing of cattle and sheep is the chief employment. The greater part of the inhabitants are Kafirs, most of them still nearly barbarians, though many are employed as domestics and as field labourers. The Europeans are for the most part Boers, or farmers of Dutch descent. Pretoria is the principal town and seat of the (Dutch)

government. Most of the traffic is carried on by waggons, which make their way through the difficult passes of the Drakenberg to Natal.

GRIQUALAND WEST, or the DIAMOND FIELDS, is a bare and uninviting region, except along the banks of the Orange and Vaal rivers, which are wooded and picturesque. Were it not for the valuable diamond-mines which were discovered here in 1867, Griqualand would not have been annexed to the British Crown. Now, some of the most productive mines have been exhausted, and the motley population which gathered here from all parts of the world has become more settled.

ZULULAND, or the home of the Zulu Kafirs, lies between Natal and Delagoa Bay. About the beginning of this century, the Zulus, a clan of the coast Kafirs, began to imitate the military system of the Europeans, and to organise themselves into severely disciplined bands. Soon all Kafirland, from the Limpopo southward to the borders of the Cape Colony, fell under their sway, and it was with these warriors the Boers had to fight when they first migrated into Natal. A number of their bands marched out northward, conquering all before them, and the leaders of these armies founded a number of extensive kingdoms over the wide country which lies south of the great curve of the Zambesi. Zululand, as we have said, is their home-country: until 1879 it was under the rule of the late warlike chief Cetewayo, and was well peopled; and as all the grown-up men were soldiers, there was a large Zulu army. At the present time a civil war is raging in the tribe, and how Zululand will finally be governed remains to be seen.

NAMAQUA-LAND, inhabited by Hottentots, and DAMARALAND, peopled by Kafirs, are dreary regions lying along

the Atlantic shores, and are under the protection of Britain.

### Questions on the Map of South Africa.

1. Name the chief state of South Africa. Its northern boundary. The mountain chains which enclose the Great Karroo. Where is the Cape of Good Hope? A mountain which rises above the cape. A large town at the foot of the mountain. A town on Algoa Bay. One or two rivers which have a south-eastern course. Name any bays and capes on the south coast. What part of Cape Colony would you judge to be most thickly peopled? What part of the map shows no signs of habitation? What desert skirts Cape Colony on the north? What native territory lies on the western coast-lands about the 30th parallel?

2. Various lesser states lie to the east of the 25th meridian:—name three which are washed by the Indian Ocean. Name the two territories drained by the St. John river. Name the seaport of Natal. Its principal town. What states bound it on the north and on the south? Name a town in Zululand. What mountain range backs these states on the eastern coast? Name any summit of these mountains. What native territory lies on the western slope of these mountains? Of what mountain range in Cape Colony are the Drakenberg mountains a continuation?

3. What large state is enclosed between the Orange river and the river Vaal? The principal town in this state. What would you say as to the water supply of the Orange Free State? What state lies on the other side of the Vaal? A state at the confluence of the Vaal with the Orange river.

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### THE ISLANDS ROUND AFRICA.

MADAGASCAR.—The great island of Madagascar does not belong in any way to Africa; it is divided from the continent by a channel 240 miles wide at its narrowest point; its human inhabitants are altogether distinct in race, and many of its animals are peculiar.

The island extends nearly a thousand miles from north to south, and occupies a space larger than France: nearly the whole of it is filled with a great plateau, about 4000 feet high, which reaches almost throughout its whole length, leaving wide plains only in the south and west. The shores are marshy and unhealthy, but the high grassy plains and wooded terraces of the plateau have a delightful climate. Here is to be seen the famous "Traveller's Tree," the leaf-stalks of which contain, it may be, a quart of pure water, even in the driest weather. Instead of the large and fierce wild animals of Africa, here are only the timid lemur, and harmless insect-feeding animals.

The Malagasses, as the inhabitants are called, really belong to the Malay family, and resemble those of the East Indian Archipelago in customs, features, and language. They are divided into three chief tribes, and of these, the Hovas—who occupy the central highlands—are the most powerful and the most intelligent. Madagascar forms an independent kingdom under the rule of a Hova dynasty. Christian missionaries have long been labouring in the island, and although the last queen but one was a zealous heathen, her successor in 1869 abolished all the heathen customs, committed the idols of the whole nation to the flames, and was herself baptised.

The capital, Antananarivo, lies on a high plateau near the centre of the island. Tamatave, the chief seaport on the east coast, is the only other place of much importance. Cattle-rearing and agriculture are the chief employments of the people; silk and woollen stuffs are also made, as well as beautifully dyed cloths from the fibre of the palm.

The French have several settlements on the northern



coast, the seat of government being in the Comoro Islands.

Of the remaining islands in the seas round Africa, are the French Isle of Bourbon, now called Réunion, the British island of Mauritius, and Madeira, famed for its beauty, rich fruits, and its delicious climate: many invalids leave more chilly climes to seek comfort and health from the soft air and glowing sunshine of this happy isle.

The Canary Islands belong to Spain; they are all high and volcanic, their greatest height being the famous Peak of Teneriffe.

Far out towards the centre of the Atlantic is the solitary islet of St. Helena, a rather desolate island, held by a British garrison, and memorable because here Napoleon Bonaparte was confined until his death. The house he inhabited, called "Longwood," is in the most barren and desolate part of the island.\*

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\* The geographical facts in these lessons are drawn largely from Keith Johnston's and Mrs. Somerville's articles upon *Africa*.

## AMERICA.

## THE PROGRESS OF DISCOVERY IN AMERICA.

LONG before Columbus sailed from the port of Palos, (1492), on that famous voyage which altered the geography of the world, the Scandinavians had already found the way to North America. From Greenland, which they had touched in pursuit of the whale, they sailed farther to the west, and gradually extended their discoveries from the coasts of Labrador, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland, to those of the present State of Rhode Island, which they called the "good Vinland," from the wild vines they found growing there in great abundance.

But the world in general knew little of these discoveries, and cared less. Not until the end of the fifteenth century did the moment arrive which was to open up the New World ; and to Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, does the glory of the discovery belong. For fifteen years he pondered upon his great idea—that, by sailing to the west, he might, at least, reach the Indies by a shorter route than that round the Cape, if *nothing lay between*.

But not until after years of disappointment did he find the means—the money and the ships—to carry out his project. At last he succeeded in interesting Isabella of Castile, the enlightened queen of Spain, proving to her that Spain must be enriched by the discoveries he expected to make. He was provided

with three ships and their crews, and set sail from the port of Palos, on the 2nd of August, 1492.

The good trade winds carried the little fleet across the ocean; but when two months had passed and no land was sighted—nothing anywhere but the interminable expanse of ocean—the mariners grew mutinous, and their admiral was compelled to promise to turn homewards if no signs of land appeared within three days. And the third day, behold, one of the Bahama Islands was sighted, and on the 12th of October Columbus knelt upon its shores to give thanks to God for having brought him to this new land. Then he sailed amongst the West Indies, and discovered Cuba, St. Domingo, and some other islands: and in the April of 1493 he returned to Spain, bringing with him Indians, painted according to their savage fashion, and various kinds of parrots, strange beasts and rare plants, and gold, in dust and in lumps, and wrought into barbaric ornaments. As Columbus approached them, the sovereigns of Spain rose to receive him with high honours; and he told them all he had seen and done. When he had finished, they sank on their knees, and gave thanks and praise to God for so great a providence, while *Te Deum* was chanted by the priests.

*Indies* these islands were called, and *Indians* the natives, because Columbus believed that he had reached the outlying islands of the eastern Indies by this long westerly voyage. Of course, he returned to his new Indies, but it was not until his third voyage, made in 1498, that he saw the mainland of America, which received this name from one *Amerigo* Vespucci, who did not visit it till 1499. The remaining history of Columbus is sad enough: the envy of his enemies caused him to be sent home in chains, after his third

voyage; his fourth was one of miserable disaster from storms and shipwreck; and two years after his return, his mind gave way under accumulated wrongs and poverty.

It was easy for others to follow where Columbus had led the way: Spain and Portugal explored nearly the whole of South and Central America, the captains everywhere taking possession of the lands they discovered in the name of their respective governments. Pizarro conquered Peru; Cortes, Mexico. The brave captain Orellana ventured on a voyage little less appalling than that of Columbus—he explored the mighty Amazon from its upper waters to its mouth. France hastened to secure her share of the spoil, exploring and colonising in the basins of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi; and England, the last in the field, was the most energetic and successful of the four nations which divided America amongst them—so much so, that at this day English-speaking people occupy the whole of America north of Mexico, with one or two trifling exceptions.

No event in that century of astonishing discoveries is more memorable than the voyage of Magellan, a Portuguese navigator in the employ of Spain. His fleet was mutinous; there was a shipwreck; vessels were lost. None were willing to follow him further when they came in sight of the dreary American promontory, the desolate Tierra del Fuego, and the sombre Cape Forward. Magellan and his men soon saw enough of this dismal region. He exclaimed, "Onwards!" He explored, and tacked, and threaded his way through a hundred isles, and entered upon a limitless sea, that day unvexed by storms, and therefore named *Pacific*. He perished in the Philippines: but one of his ships,

the *Victory*, with its pilot, Sebastian Cabot, reached home in 1521; and he and his men were the first who had completed the circumnavigation of the world. The great truth had been guessed at before, but now, for the first time, was it made known to men as a certainty that the world was round, at least in one direction.

But though America was discovered, and explored, and colonised, there yet remained something to be done. The huge continent lay in the way of the passage to India which Columbus had dreamt of, but might not something be done in the north? Surely, *there* was an open sea for valiant ships. Look well at the names marked on the map round the Arctic shores of America: many of them are epitaphs—all that was left of a long stream of navigators who died in the attempt to discover the long-talked-of North-West Passage to the East. For more than three hundred years, a host of explorers eagerly pursued the dream. It was a succession of martyrs. Cabot, the pioneer, was only saved by the mutiny of his crew, which prevented him from venturing further. Barentz died of cold, and Willoughby of famine. Hudson was thrown by his own men into a small boat, without provisions and without sails, and we know not what became of him. Bering, discovering the strait which separates America from Asia, died of hunger, cold, and misery, on a desert island. In our own time, Franklin was lost among the ice, and only his bones were recovered after twelve years' weary search, in which foreigners as well as English assisted. At last, a ship equipped by Lady Franklin, succeeded in finding the great navigator's remains.

The months of April and May 1853 are a memorable epoch in the history of Arctic navigation. In April was found the passage which men had sought for upwards

of three hundred years. We owe the discovery to a fortunate impulse of despair. Captain M'Clure, having entered the Polar Sea by Bering's Strait, got imprisoned in the ice; and at the end of a couple of years, being in a perishing condition with hunger, and unable to return, hazarded all upon a forward movement. He marched forty miles, and found in the Eastern Sea some English ships. His boldness saved him, and the great discovery was at length made—a discovery destined to prove of little use, for what ships could weather these terrific seas! But the discovery of the North-West Passage has not put an end to Arctic voyaging: the North Pole itself has been the quest of several recent expeditions.

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## SOUTH AMERICA.

### THE ANDES AND THE MOUNTAIN STATES.

The American continent, which is second only to Asia in size, consists of two great peninsulas joined by a long, oddly-shaped isthmus; it is thus naturally divided into North, Central, and South America, the whole having a length of 9000 miles. Through the whole length of this continent, stretching nearly from pole to pole, there runs an immense mountain chain, by far the longest stretch of elevated land in the globe.

This great range rises from the waters of the Antarctic Ocean, and through its whole length, from the Straits of Magellan in the south, to Bering Strait in the north, it keeps close to the Pacific coast. Thus we get a short, abrupt slope, with not more than half-a-dozen rivers of importance, towards the Pacific; and long, low plains, drained by the mightiest rivers of the world, towards the Atlantic.

The vast central plains of both North and South America are hemmed in on the east by lower ranges, the Alleghany mountains in North, and the mountains of Brazil in South America.

The great chain of the Andes first raises its crest above the waves in the sombre mass of Cape Horn, the southernmost point of the archipelago of Tierra del Fuego.

The Pacific washes the very base of the Patagonian Andes for about a thousand miles, and this

Half scale of Europe.





whole length of coast is thickly fringed with islands, separated from the iron-bound shores by narrow arms of the sea which are really nothing but valleys of the Andes filled by the ocean, while the islands are the summits of an outer range rising above the sea. Towards the Atlantic, Patagonia sinks into bare plains, in parts grass-covered, in parts strewn with shingle. Towards the south, the climate is very severe, and the winter winds blow over the bare plains, driving clouds of snow and sand with great violence. The southern Patagonian Indians are a tall, fine people, hunters of the guanaco and ostrich; the northern Patagonians possess flocks of cattle and sheep: they are but thinly scattered in the wide country over which they wander.

#### CHILI.

To the north of the Patagonian Andes are the Andes of Chili, in the midst of which lies the republic of Chili, the most prosperous and advanced of all those of South America. A chain of hills borders the coast, and between these and the Andes stretches a long valley well watered with rivers from the main chain; and this fertile valley forms the very garden of Chili. Here is Santiago, the capital, a fine, well-built city on a plateau, with a most delightful climate, and in the midst of the magnificent scenery of the Andes. It is joined by railway to Valparaiso, the chief seaport of Chili, and the centre of its foreign trade. Here also is Concepcion, and other flourishing towns in the midst of rich and fertile provinces. Here rises the giant Aconcagua, the highest of the Andes (23,900 feet). Many giant peaks of this region rise above the line of perpetual snow, and some of these are volcanoes. As far

north as Concepcion, the climate is humid. North of Concepcion lies Central Chili, where no rain falls for nine months in the year. In Northern Chili, rain only falls once in two or three years, and the consequence is that the region is one of extreme sterility.

## PERU.

Next come the Peruvian Andes. Peru—about ten times the size of England—is the largest of the states which lie along the Andes and the Pacific coasts. Along the sea-board is a range of hills, and between these and the Andes is a sandy desert. For the vapour-laden winds blow from the Atlantic across the flat eastern plain; they strike the cold, high summits of the Andes, and the vapour is condensed and rain pours down in torrents on the eastern slopes of the mountains, to feed the great rivers of the plain. Meanwhile, the winds go their way over the summits of the Andes, but *they have been entirely drained of their moisture*, and no rain falls on the western slopes because there is no longer any watery vapour in the air. Why no rain-winds blow in from the Pacific is a matter to be explained later. Upon this low, hot belt stands Lima, the capital city of Peru, which was founded by Pizarro, who began the magnificent cathedral. A single heavy shower of rain would be the ruin of Lima, for the flat-roofed houses are built of sun-dried clay, and a thorough “wetting” would reduce them to mere mud-puddles: but there is no danger; rain never falls here; and the earthquake, not the torrent, is dreaded by the inhabitants. The seaport of Callao, on the best harbour in Peru, is within six miles of Lima, where a great

trade is done in guano gathered from the Chincha Islands, about 100 miles further south.

Callao is the head-quarters of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company, and some of their steamers may usually be seen in the bay.

Crossing the desert, we reach the mountain slope ascending to the high plateaus of the Andes, the "Sierra," as it is called, up which narrow mule-paths lead through deep ravines and along the edges of vast precipices—dangerous and difficult travelling. When we have gained the high plains, we are in the midst of cold, bleak, desolate wastes, called "punas," above which the summit mountains of the Andes lift their rugged sides into the region of eternal snow. But these desolate punas teem with the most extraordinary riches,—wonderful mines of silver, as well as quick-silver and copper and iron everywhere.

The city of Pasco, on the plateau, nearly 14,000 feet above the sea, has long been famous for its silver mines.

The camel-like guanaco roams in great herds on the punas, and along the slopes of the Andes; and the llama and alpaca, the domesticated varieties of the same animal, yield most valuable wool.

Beyond the punas, we come to the inward or Atlantic slope of the mountains; and here the scene is changed. Bareness and desolation give place to the boundless woodlands of the Amazon basin; here abundant rains fill the tributaries of the vast river, and from here flow its great head-streams, the Ucayali and the Marañon.

The inhabitants of Peru are greatly mixed,—Indians, negroes, half-castes, and Europeans. The Indians are descendants of the aboriginal Incas, the civilised and gentle race which fell before Pizarro and other Spanish

adventurers in the sixteenth century. The Incas had a rich capital, the ancient city of Cuzco, the ruins of which—those of the huge Temple of the Sun especially—are amongst the wonders of ancient architecture. From the capital, great roads had been made, reaching into every part of the empire, which was peopled by a vast nation, and stretched down far into Chili, and over the woody plains of the Amazon. The Incas were a skilful people, understanding the arts of architecture, agriculture, working in metals, and the making of cloths of brilliant dyes from the fine wool of their llamas. But their arts and industries did not avail them to resist the arms and the craft of the few Spanish adventurers who added Peru to the rich Spanish domains.

## BOLIVIA.

From their southern point to  $21^{\circ}$  S. lat., the Andes form a single grand range of mountains; but here the chain divides into two ridges, which enclose a series of high valleys or table-lands, divided from one another by mountain-knots, that is, groups of mountains running across from one long range to the other. These lofty table-lands of the Andes are very fertile, yield every kind of grain, and have populous cities with universities, libraries, churches, at fully 12,000 feet above the sea-level; while there are mining villages at a height equal to that of Mont Blanc.

One of the most remarkable of these high valleys is that of the Desaguadero, at a height of 12,900 feet. It is from thirty to sixty miles broad, and includes a space about three times the size of Switzerland; while the snowy peaks rise all round it, fully 8000 feet higher

than itself. Potosi, the highest city in the world, stands at a height of 13,300 feet, at the foot of a mountain celebrated for its silver mines. The Lake of Titicaca, twenty times as large as the Lake of Geneva, fills the north-west of the valley.

Chuquisaca is the capital of Bolivia.

Bolivia, which is about the same size as Peru, is the most inland of the South American republics. Like Peru, it has its "punas," its warm forest regions, its high, fertile table-lands, and towering volcanoes.

#### ECUADOR.

Ecuador, the republic of the Equator, is truly a mountain state. In lat.  $4^{\circ} 50' S.$ , the Andes form the mountain-knot of Loxa, celebrated for its forests, in which the Cinchona or Peruvian bark was first observed. From this knot the chain divides into two great ridges, and between them are three high valleys. Of these, that of Quito is of extraordinary beauty. It is 200 miles long and 30 wide, with a height of about 11,000 feet, and it is shut in on each side by a magnificent chain of volcanoes,—amongst them, the snow-capped peaks of Antisana, Cotopaxi, one of the most beautiful of active volcanoes, the gigantic Chimborazo, Pinchincha, and Cayambé—all higher than the highest Alps. Though it lies in the burning equatorial zone, perpetual spring clothes the valley with verdure. And here, at a height of 9500 feet, is the famous city of Quito, with rich churches, well-built houses, a university, and all the comforts and luxuries of civilised life, on the summit of the Andes; at a spot from which eleven volcanoes are visible, the smoke and, sometimes, the flame from which increases the magnificence of the scene. The chief

products of Ecuador are cocoa, grown in the hot regions of the equator, and quinine bark from the forests. Guayaquil is the seaport of the state.

#### COLOMBIA.

The republic of Colombia occupies the north-west corner of South America, as well as the narrowest part of the isthmus of Panama. Here the Andes divide into three great ranges, or Cordilleras, the highest mountain being Tolima (18,000 feet). Amongst the mountains are cool, healthy table-lands, where white people can live with comfort. Stretching eastward to the basin of the Orinoco are vast grass plains where great herds of cattle feed. Most of the metals—gold, silver, copper, lead, iron—are found in Colombia: quinine is obtained from the forests, coffee is grown on the slopes, and indiarubber, cotton, and tobacco, on the low plains. The foreign trade is carried on chiefly by the isthmus ports of Panama on the Pacific and Aspinwall on the Atlantic, the termini of the railroad which joins the two oceans; but when the Panama canal is completed, ships will be able to pass from ocean to ocean without unloading. The capital, Bogotá, stands on a plateau, close to a magnificent waterfall.

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#### NORTHERN COAST STATES OF SOUTH AMERICA.

##### VENEZUELA.

The states of Venezuela reach along the northern border of the continent, and are crossed by the last spur of the Andes. The Orinoco is the great river of Venezuela, and here it forms a great delta on the Atlantic coast. The slopes of the northern mountains

are entirely forest-covered, and what forests they are! alive with swarms of humming-birds and glittering beetles, hung with gorgeous blossoms, and the spaces carpeted with orchids of a hundred queer shapes and of every brilliant colour. In the clearings are cocoa and sugar plantations, coffee on the slopes, and cotton, tobacco, and indigo on the plains; all of which are exported in large quantities from La Guayra, the port of Venezuela. Caracas, the capital, is about twelve miles distant, and is delightfully placed in a valley of the northern coast range. The fine lake of Maracaybo, the largest in South America, lies in this northern "garden of Venezuela."

#### GUIANA.

The name Guiana is now generally limited to the region which is divided into the three colonial possessions of British, Dutch, and French Guiana. British Guiana is by far the most flourishing of the three colonies. Georgetown, its capital, on the Demerara, has well-built wooden houses, and is crossed by canals.

The labour of the sugar plantations—the great business of Guiana—is done by negroes, Indians, or Chinese coolies. The woodlands of the interior are left to a few Indian tribes, chiefly Caribs. Large quantities of sugar, rum, and molasses are exported.

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#### THE GREAT PLAINS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

The Andes, the great water-parting range of South America, are so close to the sea that no large rivers empty themselves into the Pacific. Indeed, most of the water from the Andes is poured into the Orinoco and

the Amazon, which carry it across the continent to the Atlantic. Save for the highlands of Guiana and Brazil, the whole eastern slope of South America from the Andes to the Atlantic is a vast plain.

The Orinoco is navigable for 1000 miles at all times of the year; and, of its vast basin, the upper part is one impenetrable forest, and the lower consists of the wide plains called Llanos.

Upper Peru is the cradle of the Amazon, the greatest of rivers, which drains the chain of the Andes from the equator to the 20th parallel of south latitude, its basin including an area ten times as great as that of France.

The Rio de la Plata is 2700 miles long, and for 200 miles from its mouth, up to Buenos Ayres, it is more like a great sea estuary than a river, being never less than 170 miles broad.

Though the basins of the three great rivers are but slightly divided from each other, yet the lowlands they drain form three vast plains differing widely in character.

First, there are the Llanos of the Orinoco, covered with long grass mixed with lilies and other bulbous flowers, and occupying a vast region, level as the surface of the sea. In the wet season, the tropical rains pour down in torrents, hundreds of square miles of the Llanos being flooded by the rivers, and vast numbers of horses and other animals perish in the floods. When the water subsides, these steppes, fertilised by the river mud, are mantled with verdure; but when the dry weather returns, the grass is burnt up, and the air is filled with dust. If by any accident a spark of fire falls on the scorched plains, a conflagration spreads from river to river, destroying every living creature. The Llanos lie between the equator and the Tropic of Cancer.



The great forest, or *Matto*, as it is called by the Brazilians, bordering on the river Amazon, forms the second division of the lowlands of South America. So dense is the vegetation, that the only way of penetrating the forest is to sail up the river or its tributaries. Think of a forest six times the size of France, 1500 miles long, and from 400 to 800 in width, covering the earth between the 7th parallel of north latitude, and the 18th of south!

A few miles to the north of the Rio Colorado the red earth of the Pampas begins, covered with coarse tufted grass, without a tree or bush to relieve the view. This country, nearly as level as the sea and without a stone, extends almost to the table-land of Brazil, and for a thousand miles between the Atlantic and the Andes.

The Pampas afford inexhaustible pasture to thousands of horses and cattle.

Multitudes of animals perish in the river floods, and the drought that sometimes succeeds is even more fatal. Millions of creatures are sometimes destroyed by casual and dreadful conflagrations of the dry grass and thistles which overspread these lands.

The only formidable beasts of prey in South America are the jaguar and the puma. The great tapir, the peccary and the sloth, armadilloes and anteaters, opossums and monkeys, are the characteristic animals of the New World. The American monkeys have long tails, and many of them are able to use their tails to swing themselves from tree to tree. Eagles and vultures, especially the famous condor of the Andes, parrots and humming-birds, and the strange, great-beaked toucan, are some of the birds; while amongst the numerous serpents are the great boas and venomous rattlesnakes, and alligators abound in the tropical rivers.

**Questions on the Map of South America.**

1. What cape terminates South America? Name the group of islands off the southern point. By what strait are they separated from the mainland? What group of islands belonging to Britain lies to the north-east of these? What country occupies the extreme south of the continent? On what oceans has it shores? Describe its western coast.

2. What great mountain system fills the west of the Continent? Into how many chains do the Andes divide? At about what latitudes? What two countries occupy the mountain plateaus and the Pacific coast south of the Equator? Name three towns in Chili. A volcano near Santiago. Four towns in Peru. A group of small islands off the coast near Callao. A tributary of the Amazon which drains Peru. A lake near Cuzco. Name the State which lies between Peru and Brazil. Two of its towns lie amongst the Andes,—name them. It is drained by tributaries of the Amazon and of the La Plata,—name these. Where must the water-parting between these rivers lie?

3. What mountain State lies upon the Equator? A city "under the line." Two other cities in this State. Two great volcanoes close to the Equator. The most northerly of the western mountain States? Two towns in it. How many ranges of the Andes fill it? Where do the mountains branch to on the west? Name in order the four mountainous States which have shores on the Pacific?

4. Into which northern State does a branch of the Andes enter? A mountain range in the south of this State. What river drains Venezuela? What river washes its shores? Two towns on this sea-board. A lake in the north of the country. What name is given to the lands in the basin of the Orinoco? In what general direction does this river flow? What sort of climate must these regions have?

5. Between what three European Powers is Guiana divided? A town and a river in British Guiana. Through what States does the Equator run? Is any part of this equatorial region likely to be cool? Give your reasons. What mighty river drains this region? By what two names is it known? Whence does it bring its head waters? Name its chief tributaries, on the right and on the left. What town stands at the mouth of the Tocantins? Name any other towns in the basin of the Amazon. What name is given to

the vast forests through which this river flows? In what direction does it run?

6. Name any rivers of Brazil which are not tributaries of the Amazon. In what direction does the water-parting of the country run? Name five seaport towns in Brazil. Four inland towns at the foot of the eastern mountains. Give the boundaries of Brazil. Describe its coasts. Which would be the most convenient ports of the Old World for Rio Janeiro and Pernambuco? State roughly (according to the scale) the greatest length and breadth of Brazil.

7. What rivers unite to form the estuary of the La Plata? Name any tributaries of these rivers. Which of these rivers give their names to States? What name is given to the group of States drained by the La Plata? Two seaports at the mouth of the river. Name four towns on the Paraguay. A desert lies to the west of the Paraguay,—name it. What name is given to the plains drained by the La Plata?

8. Name seven seaport towns on the eastern coasts of South America. The three great rivers which drain the continent.

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## CENTRAL AMERICA.

THE narrow, strangely shaped strip of land which joins North and South America, is about twice the size of Great Britain, and contains five republics. Instead of forming one continuous chain, the Andes break here into a series of table-lands. The State of Guatemala rests on such a table-land, consisting of undulating verdant plains of great extent, fragrant with flowers, and crossed by deep valleys.

In the south are the cities of Old and New Guatemala, the new city being within a few miles of the three volcanoes of Pacaya, Fuego, and Agua. The old city has been twice destroyed by the torrents of boiling water and stones discharged by Del Agua, and is now nearly deserted on account of earthquakes.

All the eastern slope of Central America to the Caribbean Sea is densely forest-covered, so much so, that many parts of it are inhabited only by wandering Indian tribes, while the more open lands on the Pacific side have been settled by Europeans.

Along the western edge of the table-land, there is a long line of volcanoes of various heights. It would seem as if a great crack had been produced in the earth's surface through which the internal fires find a vent. Altogether there are thirty-eight active volcanoes in Central America, seventeen of which are in Guatemala—a greater number than in any other country, Java excepted.

The remaining republics of Central America are

Honduras, San Salvador, Nicaragua (where is the large lake of the same name), and Costa Rica. Of these the three first are, for the most part, forest-covered, while Costa Rica (rich coast) is by far the most flourishing and cultivated. In the early days of American story, this was the land of romance; here was a famous gold mine, and hither it was that Sir Francis Drake and Sir Walter Raleigh came to seek for gold, whether from Indian cities, or Spanish ships, or out of the bowels of the earth. A rich coast this truly is, whether it contain gold or not: two crops may be raised here in the year; forests of the coco-nut palm extend for miles; it produces the cocoa-bean, vanilla, indiarubber, numerous dye-woods, balsams, medicinal plants, sugar, cotton, tobacco—all the usual productions of a tropical clime. But the vegetation is so rank, the high trees so interlaced with creepers, that the light is shut out; and the heat is so intense and rain so frequent, that the climate is exceedingly unhealthy. The capital of Costa Rica is San José, on the central heights of the isthmus.

British Honduras, or Belize, a territory extending between Guatemala and the Bay of Honduras, is a British colony with a Lieutenant-Governor; it is valuable chiefly for the mahogany and logwood of its forests, which are floated down by the rivers to the sea, and shipped in large quantities.

Almost everywhere in Central America the aborigines, the so-called Indians, are by far the most numerous element of the population: they have a robust figure, straight black hair, a copper-brown colour, and high cheek-bones. The whites or creoles, descendants of the Spanish invaders, are not numerous, neither are the negroes.

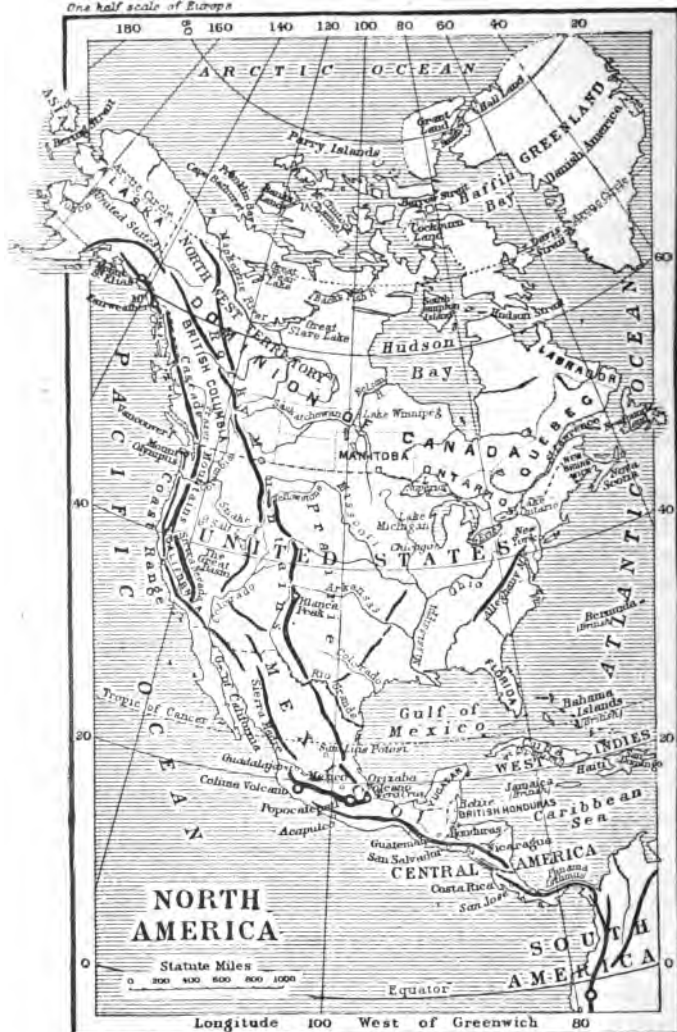
## NORTH AMERICA.

NORTH AMERICA, like the southern continent, consists of a vast central plain, reaching from the Arctic shores to the Gulf of Mexico, with a picturesque and pleasantly wooded range of mountains on the east—the Alleghanies—and on the west, a great mountain system, the northward continuation of the Andes; beyond the mountains are, the Atlantic slope on the east, and the Pacific slope on the west.

Continuing northwards from Central America, we find the mountains spreading into the most extensive table-land on the face of the earth, that of Mexico, measuring 1600 miles at its greatest length. On the surface of the plateau, groups and ridges of mountains arise; but except where these occur, it is as level as the ocean. Round the city of Mexico, and scattered elsewhere on the plateau, are the snow-crowned cones of great volcanoes,—Orizaba, known as the “mountain of the stars,” because its always fiery crater looks like a star in the darkness of the night; Popocatepetl (17,720 feet), the loftiest in Mexico, Colima, and others. Deep cavities, called *Barancas*, scar the table-land in all directions; they are large rents, two or three miles broad, and many more in length, often 1000 feet deep, with a brook flowing at the bottom.

The table-land of Mexico is continued northward to the Arctic Ocean, in a long chain of desert plateaus higher than the highest summits of the British Isles, which lie between the Pacific coast range and the

One half scale of Europe



Stanford's Geog. Estab.

Rocky Mountains. This desert region consists of three great plateaus, or *basins*.

The most southerly is the basin of the Colorado at the head of the Gulf of California, a region of mountain ridges and table-lands nearly as large as France: the main river and its tributaries have scooped narrow ravines, called cañons, of awful depth through these dry, barren table-lands. The Grand Cañon of the Colorado is 500 miles in length and from 2000 to 5000 feet in depth. Thus the streams of the region, instead of flowing near the surface and watering the country, are lost in the depths of the earth, leaving the uplands barren.

The next of these plateaus is what is called the Great Basin, or the Great Salt Desert of Utah, larger than the last, and consisting of vast, high, desert steppes, many of them covered with incrustations of salt. It is a dry, rainless region, because the winds from the Atlantic drop their moisture while blowing over the continent and across the Rocky Mountains. This desert has therefore few streams, but it has innumerable lakes, all of them, like the Great Salt Lake and the Utah Lake, charged with salt.

The third division of the plateau which reaches up to the Arctic Ocean is narrower than the others, and has fertile valleys and table-lands, with many lakes, and feeds some of the largest rivers.

The Coast Mountains of the Pacific, which bound the great desert belt on the west, run parallel with the Rocky Mountains along the whole length of the coast from the peninsula of California to that of Alaska. It is a wide and very lofty chain, with many peaks higher, even, than those of the Rocky Mountains.

In the peninsula of California it is a single ridge;



but in N. lat. 35°, it divides into two branches, running northwards, namely, the Coast Mountains and the Sierra Nevada; and between these lies the famous gold-producing valley of California. Further north, the Sierra Nevada is continued in the Cascade Mountains, so called from the number of rapids and waterfalls which pour down their slopes. This is the loftiest part of the whole coast range, and contains three peaks which are 14,500 feet, or more, above the sea—Mount Baker, Mount Fairweather, and Mount St. Elias (14,970 feet), all of which are volcanoes, occasionally active.

The Rocky Mountains are the main chain of North America, as the Andes are of South. The mountain-mass leaves Mexico under the name of the Sierra Madre, and, in Colorado, spreads out into a region of plateaus and peaks fully 300 miles wide. The high valleys or table-lands amongst the mountains are called parks, here; and very beautiful they are, and very large. The four best known are, North, Middle, South, and San Luis Parks, each about 9000 square miles in extent. They are green and lovely, wooded, and well watered; are the feeding-grounds of great herds of cattle, and are surrounded by such snow-capped giants as Long's Peak and Pike's Peak, whose sides are clothed with pine forests. Fremont's Peak is the tallest of the central Rocky Mountains; but the highest points of the range are in the north—Mount Hooker, Mount Brown, and Mount Murchison, all 16,000 feet, or more, in height.

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## Part II.

Of the great lowlands which fill the centre of North America, the most remarkable are the vast prairies of the Mississippi, reaching from the great lake region of the north to the Gulf of Mexico. Though sometimes undulating, these savannahs are oftener level and interminable as the ocean, and covered with long rank grass of tender green, mixed with lilies and other bulbous flowers, which fill the air with fragrance.

From British Columbia across to Canada and Labrador, pine forests are the natural covering of the land. In the severe climate of the lands which edge the Polar ocean, the trees become stunted and small, and at last give place to barren mosses and frozen swamps. Here, in the short summer, the surface soil thaws into mud and marsh, and clouds of mosquitoes fill the air; in winter, snows cover the land, and the lakes are hard frozen for half the year, and the thermometer falls far below the zero point. Farthest north of all, are the barren islands of the Arctic—the rocky points showing dark above the covering of snow and the ice-covered sea around them, and the huge island of Greenland, apparently covered, except for a narrow strip of its western coast, by one vast sheet of glacier ice. “Hvidsark” or “White Shirt” was the name given to it by the Dane who first discovered this land of desolation, and certainly that is a far more suitable name for it than Greenland.

It is a Danish possession, and there are a few small Danish colonies scattered amongst the Eskimo fishers on the western coast.

As the water-parting—the Rocky Mountains—is in the west, all the great rivers of North America flow

eastward, to the Atlantic. Two of the most remarkable rivers in the world are the Mississippi, the "Father of Waters," and the St. Lawrence, which, though not nearly so great a river as the Mississippi, carries to the ocean more fresh water than any other river of the world: a glance at the map will show why—it has in its basin a chain of great fresh-water lakes, inland seas almost, one of them, Lake Superior, being the largest fresh-water lake on the earth. Further north, in the basins of the Nelson and Mackenzie, are four or five other great lakes, but the rest of the low land of America is altogether without large lakes.

Maize is the only cultivated grain native to America; sugar, cotton, coffee, and many other plants of which large crops are now raised, have been introduced by Europeans. Tobacco and the potato are, however, native to America; as are also arrowroot and tapioca, cocoa, and vanilla. The most important mineral product of North America is its gold, which is found on both sides of the Rocky Mountains; silver, also, is found in the west; and copper, iron, and lead in many parts. Nowhere in the world are there richer coal-fields than in eastern North America; and "oil wells," yielding vast quantities of petroleum, have been found, especially in Pennsylvania and near the town of London in Canada.

The population of America is supposed to amount now to about eighty-six millions. Of these, some fifteen millions are the aborigines, the American Indians, or "red men," who are much more numerous in South and Central America than in North. They are rather tall and well-made, with soft skins varying from yellow to copper colour; their small black eyes are turned up at the corners like those of the Chinese, and their straight black hair is coarse and harsh, and hangs over

a low, broad forehead. They are divided into endless tribes, and speak, it is said, some four or five hundred different languages. The only people amongst them that have ever become highly civilised were the Aztecs of Mexico and the Incas of Peru, who were great nations with many industries before Europeans knew of the existence of the New World.

By far the greater number of the inhabitants of America at the present day are either emigrants from Europe or are the descendants of the adventurers who seized America after its discovery by Columbus. The Spaniards, who landed first in the West Indies, worked their way across to Mexico, down the coast of the Pacific to Peru and Chili, and over the great plains of the La Plata. All these lands are now held by Spaniards, or *Creoles* as they are called, that is, whites of Spanish descent, born in America; and these territories have shaken off the rule of the mother-country, and have set up the fifteen Creole republics of Central and South America, including Mexico. In all of them the Roman Catholic is the prevailing religion. Portuguese Brazil is the only monarchy in America—the continent of republics. English-speaking people hold the American continent north of Mexico, the land being divided between the United States—a vast republic, and the British possessions. Everywhere on the American continent there are many negroes, either slaves themselves, or the descendants of slaves. Spread all round the Arctic coasts are a curious people, the Eskimos—short and squat, with flat nose, oblique eyes, and brown skin—as far as we may guess at the colour of the skin of people who never wash; these are the seal hunters of the Arctic Seas.

**Questions on the Map of North America.**

1. Through how many degrees of latitude does North America extend? In what direction is its greatest length? How is it connected with South America? How is it separated from Asia?

2. What three oceans wash the shores of North America? Which of these have the most broken coasts? Where would a ship arrive which crossed the Pacific from San Francisco, the Atlantic from New York, and the Arctic (if that were possible) from Cape Bathurst?

3. Name a few of the islands and water channels whose names mark the attempts of Arctic explorers. What vast mass of land lies to the east of Baffin Bay? To what European state does it belong? What ocean washes its southern shores? Name the most northern land or water marked on your map. Name two rivers which flow into the Arctic Ocean.

4. Name four great arms of the Atlantic on the west coast. By what wide strait is the most northern opening entered? By what strait is Hudson Bay entered? What land lies on the opposite side of this strait? What island lies in the mouth of Hudson Bay? Name a river which flows into this bay. Hudson Bay and the St. Lawrence help to form a peninsula,—what country occupies its northern shores? What British island lies off the western corner of this peninsula? To the south of the St. Lawrence estuary is a small peninsula, also British,—name it.

5. Name the five great lakes in the basin of the St. Lawrence. A lake in the basin of the Saskatchewan. Two great lakes whose waters the Mackenzie carries into the Arctic Ocean.

6. Name two vast inland seas which are partly enclosed by peninsulas and islands. What general name is given to the islands? Name the two peninsulas which partly enclose the northern sea or gulf. One of the greatest rivers of the world flows into this gulf,—name it. What name is given to the western lands between this river and the mountains? Name two other rivers which flow into the Gulf of Mexico.

7. Name the large peninsula on the north-east. By what oceans is it washed? What strait separates it from Asia? Is Alaska British territory?

8. Name an island off the west coast. A long, narrow peninsula. What difference do you observe between the east coast and the west coast?

9. In what direction do the Rocky Mountains run? Name two high peaks on the borders of British America. One in the United States. These mountains form the great water-parting of North America: on which side is the longest slope, and, therefore, on which side are the largest rivers? Name half-a-dozen rivers which rise in the Rocky Mountains and flow eastward to the Atlantic: two which fall into the Pacific.

10. The land to the west of the Rocky Mountains is a high table-land with another mountain-edge on the west:—what name does this chain bear in British Columbia? In the United States? In Mexico? A third range of mountains skirts the coast, to the west of the Sierra Nevada and Cascade ranges,—name it. Name two summits in the northern part of this coast range.

11. Name three volcanoes on the table-land of Mexico. Five towns in this country. What river forms part of its northern boundary?

12. To the east of the Rocky Mountains is a great plain drained by one immense river,—name the river: name a chain of mountains which partly bounds the plain on the east.

13. Name five provinces of British America. What province occupies the high plateau between the Cascade Mountains and the Rocky Mountains?

14. What lands occupy the whole continent between the Dominion of Canada and Mexico? How is Mexico situated?

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**A Further Account of some of the Great Political  
Divisions of America.**

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**THE DOMINION OF CANADA.**

WE have said so much in a former volume concerning British North America, that we need not enter into details here. The whole of the British possessions in North America, with the exception of Newfoundland, are now included in the "Dominion"—that is to say, the half of the continent north of the 49th parallel. The forest-covered peninsula of Alaska, however, belongs to the United States.

The vast fur-hunting grounds of the North-West Territory—a region of prairies and interminable forests, of great rivers, lakes, and swamps—the pastures of Manitoba, the gold regions of British Columbia on the banks of the Fraser river, the mines and fisheries of Nova Scotia, the dense forests of New Brunswick, have been described already. So, too, has Canada Proper, a country five times as large as England, consisting of the two provinces of Ontario and Quebec.

The province of Ontario is the most important part of the Dominion; it lies along the shores of the St. Lawrence, and of the four great lakes; and along these shores it is thickly settled with a population, for the most part, of British descent.

The province of Quebec occupies both sides of the St. Lawrence from the river Ottawa to the Gulf. The river valley is very fertile, but a great deal of the province is almost incapable of cultivation from the

Two thirds scale of France, nearly





severity of the climate. The inhabitants are, for the most part, descendants of the original French settlers; they are called *habitans*; many of them speak a corrupt French dialect, and they are Roman Catholics in religion. A small Indian population still remains in Canada—Chippeways, Mohawks, or Iroquois—some of them settled in villages, others nomadic hunters.

The industries of Canada depend a good deal on its magnificent water-way (near 1300 miles from Chicago to Montreal), formed by the great river and its mighty chain of lakes, along which steam-vessels now bring the grain and other produce of the Western States for consumption in Europe. The river trade, "lumbering" or timber trade, the fisheries—those of the Gulf being amongst the most valuable in the world, agriculture, stock-raising, and dairy-farming occupy the Canadians; the exports to England and the United States being timber, fish, and furs, meat, dairy produce, and cattle. Ottawa, near the famous Chaudière Falls, is the capital and the seat of government for the whole Dominion, which has a constitution like that of Great Britain. Montreal, however, is the largest city of Canada (120,000). It has extensive trade and manufactures, and from it the magnificent tubular bridge carries the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada across the St. Lawrence, which is here two miles wide.

As to the advantages which Canada offers as a field for emigration, the following extracts from a speech delivered by the Marquis of Lorne (as reported by the *Times*), give much valuable information.

"He thought his five years' residence in Canada gave him a right to tell those who wished to know what the advantages of that great country are. The great bugbear to the minds of many in contemplating a

move to Canada is the alleged great and trying cold of that country. The climate is exceedingly healthy. Fevers are unknown. Men attain to great ages; and where many generations have lived on Canadian soil, the race becomes more vigorous, if possible, than in the days of the first settlers. Cold it certainly is, during five or six months of the year, but the cold is dry, and, except upon the sea coasts, is less felt than is the cold here.

"The cold being great, the question of fuel is an all-important one; but it is most fully met by the conditions of the country. What is known as Old Canada—namely, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Ontario, and Quebec—is a vast region of woodland, now largely cleared of forest, but having an abundant supply of wood for fuel within easy reach of every place where men have settled, or are likely to settle. Enormous stores of coal are being actively worked in Nova Scotia. You may see in the mines near Picton, galleries twenty feet in height worked in the solid coal. As far as Old Canada is concerned, no lack of fuel need ever be feared. Experts believe that coal in any quantity exists beneath the long rolling swell of the prairie along a track 400 miles long by 200 in breadth. And even if this exhaustless supply did not exist, the railway could readily carry to the settler the coal of British Columbia."

Speaking of emigration, Lord Lorne said:—"No one doubts that very many in our large towns can benefit themselves by moving. Very many in the country can do so also; but I would rather see departures from the overcrowded towns. All emigrants should go out in the spring. First, what are the inducements offered to emigrants who desire to procure manual

labour? At present (1883), the Canadian Pacific Railway is offering good wages for navvies, and the cost of a passage is only 3*l*. Any one knowing the trade of a blacksmith, a mason, a bricklayer, or willing to work as a hired man on a farm, is sure of employment.

"Canada does not offer great inducements to young men who wish to lead a town life; the town life, as compared with the country life, gives fewer opportunities, for the cities are, relatively to the population, small. I have known very many men who have succeeded well, and who began with nothing, or next to nothing. But I should counsel all who contemplate emigration and the taking up of farm life, to have, if single men, from 50*l*. to 100*l*., exclusive of the cost of the journey, and if married, from 200*l*. to 500*l*. There are good vacant places to be had almost anywhere. It was only the other day I heard of some good land near Halifax, Nova Scotia, to be had for a dollar an acre. In the north-west, you can get 160 acres of excellent land for 2*l*. The land regulations under which these grants are made are to the full as favourable as those of the United States, and in some respects are to be preferred.

"For women, there is plenty of space and places; but the women who will succeed are the women who will work; they who wish to go out as teachers, governesses, &c., had best stay at home. The Committee of the Women's Emigration Society of Montreal told me lately that they could at once place 1000 girls of good character if sent out to them; good servant girls are excellently well treated in Canadian families.

"I should like to tell you of the country you would first see, supposing you were to make a voyage to Canada. I will take you first to the top of a steep

cliff which overlooks a gulf of the sea on one side, and a fair, wide, and green valley upon the other. If you wait until the tide ebbs, you will see that it goes back very far, and leaves a vast stretch of red sand. It will come back again over these sands with a rush which will send the water up as fast as a horse can gallop, until it surges against a long line of embankment,—this is the mighty tide of the Bay of Fundy.

“The white houses and orchards of the valley are types of many to be found in the rich province of Nova Scotia, which possesses a little gold, and great yields of coal. If wages were as low in Nova Scotia as they are in England, Picton, one of her ports, would soon rival Glasgow as a great iron-shipbuilding port. Around almost every town in Nova Scotia, farms may be had where the head of the farm can get excellent schooling for his children, a church service exactly like his own, and a ready market for any produce he may raise.

“After crossing the Gulf to its northern shore, across the valley of Sussex in New Brunswick, where beautiful trees are scattered in groups as in an English park, I will ask you to view the great province of Ontario, by far the wealthiest and most populous in the confederation. It has two millions of people, chiefly English and Scotch. . . . Passing the Niagara rapids, we come to Toronto, one of the most prosperous of the young cities of the continent. Railways reach out from it in all directions, and, though it is only eighty years since it was reclaimed from the primæval forest, it has now a population of 100,000. The people are thoroughly British, proud of their country, and proud of their town. There are capital schools in the province, which the people support and manage themselves.”

After speaking of Montreal, and of the great tubular bridge, named after the Queen, which spans the mighty river at a point before Lachlin Falls, Lord Lorne went on to describe the excellent lands through which the Canadian Pacific Railway is carried,—vast rolling prairies, where many a tract of meadow appears untouched; but it has all been bought up, to sell again. Everywhere you see wooden planked houses, and often enormous patches of wheat. Some farming companies are carrying on operations on an amazing scale: one such company has plough riggs three or four miles in length.

Every train carries hundreds of emigrants to Winnipeg, and away to the West. Last year (1882) 50,000 entered this land of promise. These countries offer to our youth, unable to find suitable outlet at home, an unfailing field for success. There is hardly a man who has left these shores and has cast in his lot with the Canadians who has had reason to regret the step.

The various provinces of the Dominion of Canada form a united country with a population of 5,000,000, thoroughly devoted to the mother-country.

#### **Questions on the Map of the Dominion of Canada, Eastern Part.**

1. What province includes the mouth of the St. Lawrence? What country bounds Quebec on the north-east? What tributary of the St. Lawrence forms its south-western boundary? Name any famous falls in this river. What town stands at its junction with the St. Lawrence?

2. Mountain ranges skirt the estuary on the right bank: name the range which approaches the shore. In what direction do these ranges run? One of these ranges forms a natural boundary—between what territories?

3. Along the shores of what lakes does Ontario lie? Which

lake appears to have attracted the largest population? Name four towns on its shores. What is the lovely lower end of Lake Ontario called? Name a town on the Ottawa river. What celebrated falls are in the little river which connects Lakes Erie and Ontario? Name a town to the north of Lake Erie. Where does the boundary line between British America and the United States fall in this lake region?

4. What two British provinces form the southern shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence? What does Nova Scotia form? What bay nearly separates it from the mainland? Describe the coast-line of Nova Scotia. Name its southern point. What is its chief town? Name two towns in New Brunswick. The river on which they stand. What island lies off the north end of Nova Scotia? Its chief town. Another island in the Gulf, near New Brunswick. Its chief town. An island in the mouth of the river.

5. The large island which partly encloses the Gulf. What strait separates it from Labrador? Its chief town. Its southern point. Describe the coast-line of Newfoundland. Name a bay on its eastern shores.

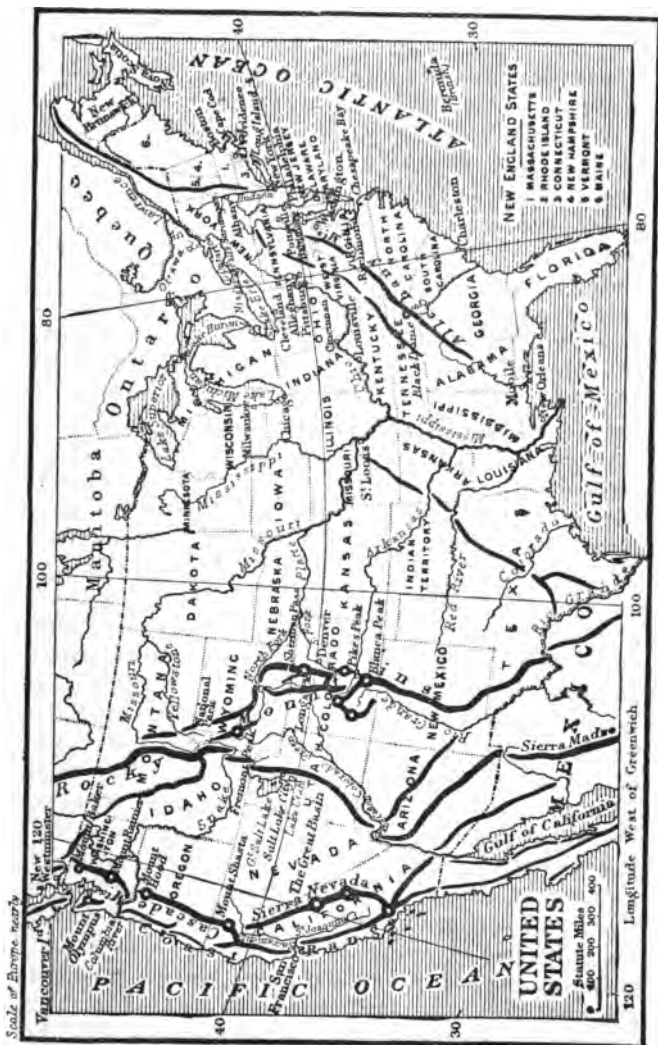
6. Name any European towns in about the same latitudes as Quebec, Toronto, and St. John's.

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## THE UNITED STATES.

WE must not allow ourselves to think of the "United States" as "a country of America." They are really eight-and-thirty distinct States or countries, many of them vastly larger than Britain ; the whole, to be compared with Europe in point of size. Each State is free, a republic, having its own laws, taxes, and government ; but, for the well-being of the whole, the eight-and-thirty States are united in a brotherhood, or, as it is called, a *Federal Republic*. Being united by this federal bond, all the States have certain laws in common—relating to education, service in the army, the right to choose members of their Congress or Parliament, &c. The English tongue is spoken throughout the republic.

The inland and Western States, including most of those which do not border on the Atlantic, have a simple enough history : the people of the Eastern States, and with them shoals of emigrants from the Old World, have been, for a century or more, migrating in a steady stream to the wide, solitary plains of the West, where the settler, if he have pluck and patience, may make, at least, a home for himself and his family. As settlers congregate, towns grow up, and local laws are needed, and by-and-by a new State is formed. In this way have sprung up Indiana, Missouri, Illinois, &c.—flourishing States with large towns and large and busy populations, which fifty or seventy years ago were parts of the wide prairie-waste. Where, as in Colorado and California, the reports of rich finds of gold have drawn





men by thousands to the new settlements, the growth of the State has been still more marvellously rapid.

But the thirteen States which border the Atlantic have histories of their own, various, and full of interest. There is Virginia, which Sir Walter Raleigh named in honour of his "Virgin Queen," and where he founded the first English colony, at "James Town," during the reign of James I. And this same King James, quite unwittingly, laid the foundation of America's fortunes. In the year 1620, twelve years after the founding of James Town, a ship called the *Mayflower* left Plymouth with a hundred persons on board, grave men, mothers, children, little used to voyaging in the open seas. A stormy voyage of sixty-three days brought them to the American coast, and, after much search, they found a harbour which they named "New Plymouth," after the Plymouth they had left. But before they tried to land, the men signed a document by which they pledged themselves to obey all laws made for the good of the colony; and then, after psalm-singing and prayer, a party of them attempted to row ashore in the face of a bitter wind which froze the very spray as it dashed upon their coats. And the landing! Snowy hills and icy rivers, and the graves of Indians were what they found. By-and-by they built themselves wooden houses, but the exposure to the cold killed many of them, and others fell at the hands of the Indians, who beset them with showers of arrows, and others died because there was nothing to live upon: and amid hardships and death and sufferings, the tale of which is too long to be told here, they thanked God and took courage, because they had got what they came for, liberty to serve God in their own way, a liberty which the jealousy and folly of

King James would not allow them in their own land. For nearly five years they fought hand to hand with famine; but in time they prospered; grew maize, and established friendly relations with the Indians. Fresh emigrants joined them from the old country, and they named the district in which they settled "New England." Their New England came to include the six Northern States on the Atlantic sea-board, which is to this day one of the most prosperous, populous, intellectual, and in every way flourishing parts of the New World; for the temper of the "Pilgrim Fathers" has not yet died out, but shows itself in the force of character, energy, industry, and purpose, which characterise the New Englanders.

A year after the landing of the *Mayflower*, the Dutch bought Manhattan Island (at the mouth of Hudson river, on which the central portion of New York now stands) from the native Indians for twenty-four dollars, and founded there the settlement which in time became New York. But we cannot stop to recount the early history of each of the States. There are the two Carolinas and Georgia, named after our English kings, Charles II. (Carolus II.) and George II., who made grants of the lands of this new continent to certain companies of settlers. William Penn, the quaker, was one of those to whom Charles II. made a grant of the lands west of the Delaware, with permission to call the region by his own name; so he took out a ship-load of emigrants wherewith to settle *Pennsylvania*, and they built the good city of Philadelphia. Florida was the seat of a Spanish settlement; and Louisiana, named in honour of Louis XIV., with its capital New Orleans, after the French Orleans, tells its own history of a French origin.

Though of very various origins, the British colonies were united by common interests, and were ready to unite in resisting a common grievance. Such a grievance arose when the British Government, under George III., proposed to tax these rich colonies for the benefit of the mother-country. A stamp duty was at first enacted, but the Act caused so much indignation that it was repealed, in favour of a duty on tea. From north to south in the colonies, however, it was determined that this tax should not be paid, and rioters in Boston, disguised as Indians, threw several cargoes of the offending tea into the harbour. War was declared in 1755, and the famous battle of Bunker's Hill, near Boston, was fought. The colonists were victorious, and next year the colonies proclaimed their separation from Britain, declaring themselves free and independent, under the title of the thirteen United States of America; but it was not until 1783 that the war came to an end, and the independence of the United States was fully acknowledged.

Every one has read 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' and knows something of the history of African slavery in the States; and the noble war between North and South which ended in its abolition is fresh in the memory of men. The "men of colour" remain, but they remain as free labourers, who sometimes rise to positions of great wealth, but never of honour in America. So great is the pride of colour, that, in church, or at public table, in steamboat or railway carriage, no "coloured person" may seat himself beside a white. In the wild West and the North, the Indian hunter still maintains his footing, but no longer in independent tribes: he lives, like the settlers, under the control of the Government, and earns his living by his gun, or by small handi-

crafts. The white population in 1880 amounted to over 50 millions.

The United States now include the whole of America from ocean to ocean, in an east and west direction; and from the boundary line of Canada on the north to that of Mexico on the south. This vast country falls into four natural divisions,—the Atlantic slope and highlands on the east, the Mississippi valley, the western highlands, and the Pacific slope.

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#### IN THE EASTERN STATES.

This section includes the curving ridges of the Alleghany mountains, which extend from the St. Lawrence, south-westward, towards the Gulf of Mexico. Their highest point is Black Dome Mountain (6700 feet). The slope from these mountains to the sea is called the Atlantic plain, and varies in width from a mere strip of coast on the north, to a breadth of 300 miles in the south. The Alleghanies or Appalachian mountains are not interesting or picturesque; long, unbroken ridges, like huge wrinkles or furrows, with long, narrow valleys between them, one after another in endless succession, the whole clothed with wood, chiefly oak—this is their general aspect; but every now and then a break occurs for the passage of a stream, and then you get a really lovely glen. In the summer, the north-western slopes are glorious with the azalea of every shade, from a pale pink to a deep crimson; it is called here the wild honeysuckle. The hills are rarely more than 2000 feet high, and usually not more than 1000.

Stretching from this chain is the great Appalachian

coal-field, which extends through Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Ohio, with a length of 720 miles, containing, it is said, coal enough to supply the world for 4000 years! Iron occurs with the coal in great abundance. Most of this coal is of the kind called anthracite, which is extremely slow in burning, emits no smoke, but has a painfully drying effect on the air of a room. Sir Charles Lyell says, speaking of Pottsville, on this coal-field: "Here I was agreeably surprised to see a flourishing manufacturing town with the tall chimneys of a hundred furnaces, burning night and day, yet quite free from smoke. Leaving this clear atmosphere, and going down into one of the mines, it was a no less pleasing novelty to find that we could handle the coal without soiling our fingers."

Pittsburgh, the Wolverhampton of the States, and Alleghany are the centres of the coal-mining region of Pennsylvania, with the most extensive ironworks, foundries, and glassworks in the United States; but these have their share of smoke-like the manufacturing towns of the Old World.

The Atlantic States, being the oldest settled and most densely peopled region, include the greater number of the large cities of the United States.

Boston, on Massachusetts Bay, close to Cape Cod, under whose shelter the *Mayflower* first touched on American soil, is the great city of New England, and is named in honour of some of the Pilgrim Fathers who came from Boston in Lincolnshire. It ranks second in foreign commerce, and is specially distinguished as the literary metropolis of the State, and for its great public libraries and schools. Boston is truly a charming city, seated on a beautiful harbour, and is at once a flourishing seaport and the seat of

the most important university in America; for Cambridge, where Harvard College is situated, is really a suburb of the city, three or four miles distant. A monument crowns Bunker's Hill, beyond Boston, a spot dear to every American. Further north is Lowell, the chief seat of the cotton manufacture of America. The mills are remarkably clean and well-warmed, and the most careful arrangements are made for the comfort and well-being of the work-people.

The scenery round Boston, and, indeed, throughout the New England States, is pleasing; hill and valley, river and brook and waterfall, broad meres, rocky coasts with lovely inlets, are met with everywhere. Manufactures are, on the whole, more important here than agriculture; indeed, it has been truly said that New England owes its wealth to its industry, the soil being sterile, the timber small, and the native productions being—ice and granite.

“Lumbering,” i. e. felling and carrying timber, and ship-building, are perhaps the principal industries of the New England States.

The six MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES are, however, those in which the greatest towns are gathered—the centres of commerce and manufactures. Foremost of these is New York, the “empire city,” the great merchant city of the New World, and second only to London in commercial importance. It lies at the mouth of the Hudson, here fully three miles wide, on the narrow island of Manhattan. You sail into the city between green islands,—Staten Island, clustered with charming villas buried in trees; Coney Island, famed for “clams,” a favourite shell-fish; Long Island, &c.: and around the magnificent harbour of New York Bay are the

suburbs of Brooklyn and Jersey, which have themselves risen into great cities. The chief street of New York is the famous Broadway—a grand street, miles in length, and lined with great hotels and splendid buildings of marble and iron. Fifth Avenue is a street of magnificent houses, very lofty, many of them of beautiful white marble, and never dirty in this clear air. But, like other great capitals, New York has its full share of filthy and unsavoury slums.

New York has a delightful pleasure garden in its Central Park, one of the most beautiful anywhere, with fine sheets of water, piles of grey rocks overgrown with the red foliage of the Virginian creeper, groups of noble trees, and beds of brilliant flowers.

From New York, we journey to Philadelphia on the Delaware river, which comes next to New York in population, and its manufactures exceed those of any other town of the States in value. On the journey, large fields of maize, and villas with neat flower gardens, are a pleasant novelty after the native forests and new clearings of the north. The streets of Philadelphia rival those of a Dutch town in cleanliness, and the beautiful avenues of various kinds of trees afford a most welcome shade. Washington, the capital of the United States, is, on the contrary, a disappointing place; here "Congress"—the American Parliament—meets, and here are the chief Courts of Justice, and, therefore, the principal persons in the country meet here at certain seasons; but they live in boarding-houses, attend to their business, and go away again, taking care not to bring their wives and daughters, who spend the interval at Saratoga, a charming watering-place, or in some other pleasure "resort." General Washington, the first President of the Republic, is said to have

selected the site of the capital as the most central spot on the Atlantic border, midway between Maine and Florida; but, somehow, the city has not prospered, and has a raw, unfinished look which repels the visitor. Washington has, however, the Capitol, built of white marble, the most magnificent building of the States; and also the famous "White House," the official residence of the Presidents of the United States. Baltimore, on Chesapeake Bay, is a great commercial city and seaport, but with many poor and crowded streets like the worst in Manchester or Liverpool; Albany is a well-built, important town, and is a good point from which to reach the celebrated Falls of Niagara.

The glory of the magnificent Falls of Niagara is shared between Canada and the States. There are two falls, divided by "Goat Island;" and the "Horse-shoe Falls," on the Canadian side of the river Niagara, is thought the more picturesque: their height is not more than 160 feet, but it is their breadth and the enormous volume of water which descends by them which rank the Falls of Niagara amongst the wonders of the world. Nothing strikes a visitor so much as the excessive beauty of the falling water—so soft and white and light, like a vast downfall of "whipped cream." The voice of many waters, as heard here, is a sound not to be forgotten, and the Indians named the spot well—O-Ni-aw-ga-rah, the thunder of waters.

The coal and iron of the Middle States, and their easy communication with the Old World, through fine harbours on the Atlantic, and by river and canal and railway with the West, have made mining, manufacturing, and commerce the great occupations of that division.

The six SOUTH ATLANTIC STATES have a warm climate,



and a wide coast plain; and here cotton, tobacco, and rice are largely cultivated, while there are no great manufacturing centres, and few large towns. Along the Atlantic plain, running parallel to the coast, is a broad belt of forest, many hundred miles in length, known as the Pine Barrens: *Pine*, because here the long-leaved pitch pine flourishes, and *Barren*, because incapable of cultivation,—a vast tract, forming, like the Pampas of South America, one of the marked features in the geography of the globe. Here, in the Barrens, occur many swamps, where peculiar kinds of evergreen oaks, the cypress or cedar, tall canes, and other plants abound. One of the largest morasses in this low, flat region is the Great Dismal Swamp. It is one enormous quagmire, soft and muddy, except where the surface is covered by vegetables and their matted roots. In these Southern States, are few habitations of what the people here call “mean whites”; the “whites” of Virginia, Georgia, and the Carolinas are gentle-folk, the planters; and rising from the midst of magnolia groves, the trees ninety feet high, you may see handsome, well-appointed houses, like those of country gentlemen in England. The field labour is done entirely by negroes, and no white labourers could stand the burning sun and unhealthy vapours of this low, marshy, though exceedingly fertile, coast plain. As it is, the lives of the white population are made miserable with ague; they shiver under this almost tropical sun, and go about with pale faces and listless gait.

These Southern States are still suffering from the effects of the terrible civil war, which so lately (1861–5) desolated the land, and brought ruin upon the families of many wealthy planters.

Richmond, once famous for its slave market, and the seaport town of Charleston, which exports cotton, rice, and tobacco, are the largest towns of this division.

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#### STATES OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

The Mississippi basin, a vast rolling plain, lies between the northern chain of lakes and the Gulf of Mexico, and, in an east and west direction, between the Alleghanies and the Rocky Mountains. This is the region of the famous prairies of North America; but towns and cultivated fields are spreading gradually over the States east of the Mississippi, and we must travel westward to reach the rolling prairies. The States naturally divide themselves into North and South; in the north, there is a fertile soil, valuable minerals, wide forests, and abundant water-ways on the great lakes and the mighty rivers. Men have not been slow to use these advantages, and never, in the history of the world, have new States—countries we may call them—grown up, and become rich and populous with the amazing rapidity of these new States of the West.

Take Ohio, for example: the handsome city of Cincinnati, its largest town, is beautifully situated on the Ohio river; and not less than 4000 steamers call at the town in the course of a year. What do they fetch and carry? Wheat and flour, pork and bacon, beef, cheese, salt, wool, copper, and timber—all the productions of these North Central States where agriculture, grazing, mining and “lumbering” are carried on—are sent eastward, from Cincinnati: westward, some of these, and manufactured goods, and the household furniture, which

may be seen piled upon the quays of the city mountain-high, chairs and bedsteads, chests of drawers, and whatever the emigrant to the West is likely to want.

The "pork aristocracy of Cincinnati" does not mean those innumerable pigs which were used to walk at large about the streets as if they owned the town, but a class of rich merchants who have made their fortunes by killing annually, salting, and exporting, about 200,000 swine.

We will cross the State of Ohio, from Cincinnati to Cleveland on Lake Erie, the second city of the State. We leave a handsome and populous city and fine roads, and the towns grow smaller, and the high-road rougher as we advance. Half-way across the State, we come across new clearings, where the felling and burning of trees is going on, and where oats are growing amid the blackened stumps. Then, for many leagues, we lose sight of all human habitations, except here and there an empty wooden building on which "Movers' House" is written, that is, a house that a family of emigrants may hire for the night. At last the road improves; again we come across scattered towns, getting more and more numerous, and soon we reach the large and busy town of Cleveland, seated on the edge of Lake Erie. Ohio was a wilderness, a vast forest, occupied exclusively by Indians until near the close of the last century: now, the Indians have given place to a large population of whites, the forest has been transformed into a land of steamboats, canals, and flourishing towns, the population being thickest round the trading towns on the Ohio and the Lake Erie. "There is no other example in history, either in the Old or New World, of so sudden a rise of a large country to opulence and power."

What we have said of one fairly describes all the new States north and east of the Mississippi; everywhere the great lakes and the rivers form the channels of commerce, and are crowded with every kind of craft, from the log-canoe to the magnificent steamboat. By degrees, settlers venture to fix their dwellings further and further from the water-way, bringing their corn and cattle to the water-side towns for exportation.

Thus Chicago has grown up on the western shore of Lake Michigan; here, fifty years ago, there was a solitary log-tavern, where straggling emigrants took refuge from the howling wolves, or from the raids of the Indians: now, here is a great commercial city, with rich stores, handsome churches, fine streets, wealthy inhabitants, fine public buildings—a large, rich city, able to recover itself in a few years after such another fire as the famous Fire of London. Then, there is Milwaukee, another great town on the same lake, whose rise has been almost as rapid; and Louisville, on the south bank of the Ohio, in Kentucky. In Kentucky is the famous “Mammoth Cave”, a limestone cavern like those of Yorkshire and the Peak, only, like everything in America, on a colossal scale, where there are chambers 250 feet long and more than half as wide, and 50 feet high, wherein are rows of cabins for consumptive invalids, who find the air of the cave delightful.

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#### THE PRAIRIES.

St. Louis, on the right bank of the Mississippi, is a great trading place, the point from which the West is reached, the key to the vast prairies. A lady,\* travel-

\* ‘South by West.’

ling in this region, says :—"I was west of the Mississippi, on that enchanted ground, to which, if you have once set foot upon it, you must sooner or later return. 'Mustang fever' is the name Westerners give to the longing which is said to allure people back into the wilderness once they have been there. Soon we came upon the regular prairies; short grass in tufts on a sandy soil, and long stretches of brown, rolling away, wave upon wave, like some great ocean turned into land in the midst of a storm. Here and there was a prairie *ranch*, or farm, with its corral (enclosure) for horses and cattle, and the great heap of grass which does duty here for a haystack.

"It is a lonely life, that of a ranchman. Settled out upon the prairie with his herd of horses and cattle, and often without another house within twelve or twenty miles; he sees nobody, except a flying glimpse of the passengers by the daily train, where there is a railway, or passing emigrants wearily crawling over the plains with their white-covered ox-waggon. In winter, terrible snow-storms endanger his life. A month after I crossed the plains, twenty-seven men were brought in on the Kansas Pacific Railroad, frozen to death while tending their herds. Yet the ranchman learns to love his wild life, and that people can live and prosper on the borders of civilisation is proved by the very existence of the States of the far West."

Among the curious sights of the prairies are the towns of the prairie dogs. You come upon a crowd of little hillocks, upon the top of many of which is posted a little brown stump about a foot high: see them closer, and they are not stumps at all, but prairie dogs sitting in the attitude of a dog begging. Otherwise, they are not

like dogs, but burrow like rabbits, and undermine the ground in a surprising way.

The wild horse, or *mustang*, roams these rolling prairies in common with the bison, elk, antelope, and deer; and is often seen in herds of more than a thousand head. The wild horse is usually caught with the lasso, a rope of horse-hair or hide, fifty feet long, with a running noose at the end, which the hunter with the most unerring skill throws over the head of a galloping horse he has singled from the herd. As the horse struggles, the noose tightens; the hunter fixes a saddle upon him, and jumps upon his back; in vain the steed plunges and rears in order to throw his rider; he might as well try to cast his skin. This goes on for about an hour, and then, the noble beast is "gentled" and fit for use.

Utterly untameable is the monarch of the prairies—the bison or buffalo, a huge beast, eight feet long, standing as high as a tall man, and tremendously strong in the shoulders and large in the head; and yet presenting a comic likeness to a French poodle, from the fact that there is much long, shaggy, brown hair about his head and mane, and very little about his hinder regions. Indian and white man alike delight in hunting the buffalo, not only for the "beef" he furnishes, but for the splendid sport he affords; therefore buffaloes are getting scarce: they still roam in vast herds in the lower Mississippi valley, and in lonely tracts in the north-west, but, fast as civilisation spreads westward, the buffalo disappears.

The GULF STATES have an almost tropical climate and tropical productions. Skirting the Gulf is a broad belt of low, hot lands,—here, vast swamps covered with

cypress, there, morasses under a growth of tall, stiff reeds, five or six feet high, among which you may hear the rustle of venomous snakes; now, dreary pine barrens, now, stretches of open prairie; now, forests of swamp-oak, cypress, and holly—haunts of the brilliant paroquet, the quail, the mocking-bird, and the live jewel of the West, the tiny humming-bird. Swamps, morasses variously covered with luxuriant tropical vegetation, distinguish this region; and these swamps extend far inland, round the lower courses of the numerous rivers, which overflow in the season of floods, and, when they retire, leave stagnant pools to breed deadly vapours—the source of the horrible yellow fever which is the scourge of this low, hot coast. The whole of the great Mississippi delta consists of low, swampy, reed-covered islands, and the banks of the “Father of Waters” for many miles inland are vast swamps under cypress forests; the river has raised its bed, and, for a hundred miles or so above the delta, is kept in by embankments called *levées*, but these hardly hinder the annual floods which lay the country on either side under water.

But where these low lands are reclaimed, there are no spots in the world more fertile. The swampy margins of the rivers become rice-fields; along the borders of the Gulf are sugar plantations, reaching to lat. 31°; and for the culture of the sugar-cane, no spot is more suited than the sandy delta of the Mississippi. But here, as in the Southern Coast States, white labour is impossible; only the negro can endure the noisome vapours that arise under the burning sun of the Gulf.

Beyond the coast swamps lie wide plains of richly fertile land inhabited by planters and their labourers:

the soil and the sun favour the growth of the cotton plant, and cotton plantations stretch round you everywhere. New Orleans, the great commercial city of the South, is the principal cotton port of the world. It is very handsome, and is called the Crescent city on account of its shape: but it is built on low ground, and when the river is in flood, the streets are under water; and the inhabitants are never secure from the ravages of yellow fever. Mobile, the second port of the South, has, like New Orleans, an immense cotton trade, and is, like it, subject to the scourge of yellow fever. In the cotton region and further north are maize and wheat fields, orange and lemon groves, plantations of the banana, fig, peach, and every delicious southern fruit. Grapes grow everywhere, and tobacco and indigo are largely cultivated.

Of all the Southern States, Texas is, at the present time, the most interesting to foreigners, because it offers a capital field for emigration. It is a huge country, much bigger than France, richly fertile, and well watered everywhere; with wide stretches of open prairie in the south, cut up by deep, thickly wooded ravines. Further north is a most delightful region of gentle swells and open valleys, and tree-crowned knolls, and park-like sweeps of verdure, with magnificent groups of park-like trees scattered over them: with delicious fruits,—peaches, figs, grapes, melons, oranges: with vast herds of buffaloes roaming its prairies, where the mustang gallops in herds, thousands strong, and where the deer is so abundant that venison is the only animal food to which the name of *meat* is given:—a paradise for the hunter, a land of promise for the emigrant farmer, is this beautiful Texan land.



## THE WESTERN STATES AND TERRITORIES.

The "Territories" of the West are the vast stretches of thinly peopled lands which have not yet become populous and civilised enough to adopt a settled form of government and take rank as "States"; and in these territories the Red man still keeps an uncertain footing. The prairies reach to the very base of the Rocky Mountains—vast, treeless, grass plains, teeming with cattle and horses; and cattle-grazing is the great industry of the States of the plain. The States of the Rocky Mountain region are employed in mining: here are rich mines of silver and gold which have drawn motley troops of miners from all quarters of the globe. Lead, copper, and coal abound here, too; but as long as great "booms" of the precious metals are to be found, the miners care for nothing else. The whole region rises high above the sea-level, and has a cool and remarkably dry climate; and the valleys afford fine pasturage. Nowhere in the world is there finer scenery than in this mountain region with its giant peaks and deep gorges. In the basin of the Yellowstone there are so many natural wonders gathered, that a section of it has been set apart by the Congress of the United States as a "National Park"; here are cañons and lakes and mountain peaks and lovely valleys and waterfalls, boiling springs and geysers,—all the wonders and glories that the traveller would find in Switzerland and Iceland combined.

But the true Switzerland of North America is the State of Colorado. It is crossed by the great chain of the Rocky Mountains, and within it are some of the highest points—Long's Peak, and Pike's Peak, and Spanish Peaks; and here is the Great Divide, the

water-parting which divides the waters belonging to the opposite slopes of the continent—the Platte and Arkansas on the one side, which flow into the Mississippi, and the Colorado and its branches on the other. A railway climbs the Divide; the traveller is carried through the pineries, great sources of wealth all along the Rocky Mountains, up a very steep ascent, and on the summit there is a lake, beside which the train stops; and from the north end of this lake flows the Platte, and from the south end, the Arkansas. Here you reach by rail, a height of 7500 feet; the Sherman Pass, on the Union Pacific Railroad is at a height of 8370 feet; but neither of these is the greatest height climbed by the marvellous railroads of the West. Marshall Pass, some twenty miles from Denver, has the highest railroad in the world. Here, the labouring, panting engine hauls up a heavy train, along a line full of curves and angles, to the astonishing height of 10,760 feet.

The scenery becomes grander and wilder every mile, now through rocky regions, savage and sterile, now by pine-clad hills. Here and there are cities to be seen springing up in the desert, mining centres which have sprung up suddenly round a spot where some lucky miner has discovered a great "find" of gold.

The "Parks" of this region are its great beauties: do not imagine pleasure grounds carefully laid out where people make holiday. These are but little used for pleasure, lovely as they are: they are high valleys, dips in the mountains, surrounded by snow-covered peaks and covered with the richest grass, where horses and cattle swarm; and here and there are scattered ranches, where the ranchemen live. Out of the world as these picturesque spots are, they have been found out by the

tourist in search of pleasure ; and one lovely, wild, most secluded little park, at the foot of Long's Peak, has been made familiar to the world lately, because here an English lady wintered amongst the ranchemen, in the intense cold of these high regions, after riding, alone and unattended, for 700 miles amongst the passes of the Rocky Mountains.\* To appreciate the courage shown in such an exploit, one must recollect that the population of these mountain States is of the wildest : —adventurers who have been drawn here from all quarters by the report of gold to be had for the digging ; for Colorado is rich in the precious metals ; and miners, wild-looking men, armed to the teeth, and ruffians who come hither to prey upon the miners, to induce them to drink, and gamble, are to be seen in all the mining towns.

The "city of the plain" is Denver, the capital of the State, which lies within a sort of cup surrounded by lofty mountains. It has wide streets, and few "mean" or badly built houses ; most of the business blocks are of brick or stone, and there are streets with pretty wooden villas, each in its own garden ; poplar trees are planted along the streets ; there are fine hotels, and good shops where you may buy everything that any one can want ; there are churches and chapels and assembly rooms ; and a population of 38,000,—and the town has grown up within little more than twenty years ! Still, Denver is not a pleasant place : the wide streets are hot and dusty in the summer, and frightfully cold in the winter : civilised and correct as the city appears, there are hundreds of lawless characters, little better than brigands, who make it their headquarters ; men who live by their wits or by their weapons, and who are

\* Miss Bird's 'Rocky Mountains.'

ready to shoot a man for a word, especially if he carries a miner's belt of gold round his waist. When a ruffian has made himself famous by murders and robberies, in a new State where the law is not yet fully established, *lynch law* is put in force; that is, the inhabitants of the city or district judge and condemn the criminal to instant death by hanging on the nearest tree.

Among the marvels of Colorado are the cañons—deep, narrow gorges in the rocks, sometimes thousands of feet deep, at the bottom of which the rivers run. "All that has been written about the Grand Cañon utterly fails to convey an idea of its exceeding grandeur and wildness; the rocks, closing in, rise aloft for upwards of 2500 feet on each side, coloured with the brightest hues, and presenting an infinite variety of forms. Far beneath rushes the impetuous current of the Arkansas river, contracted at times to a breadth of twenty or thirty yards, and penned into a space in which the waters leap and toss about wildly below the railway cars on the line which has been carried through this frightful gorge."

Wherever you go in the States, you see "Colorado Springs" advertised as a wonderful health resort. The name is inviting; you think of a delightful valley with green grass and shady trees; instead of which you find yourself on a dreary plateau, greenish brown, without a tree, or a soft valley, or any feature of loveliness. The springs are at some little distance; at Maniton, which has great hotels, and is surrounded by mountains, and is rather like one of the Swiss villages which are visited for health by people of all nations; except that at Maniton there are gipsy-like tents spread round the town, whose inmates are not gipsies, but are the families of consumptive invalids who have been

brought hither for the benefit of the fine air and the water of the springs.

We have no room to describe the remaining mountain States, nor the Utah Territory wherein is the famous Mormon settlement of Salt Lake City, a thriving colony which threatens to become a State; we say threatens, because it is ill for the world that the principles of these people should spread. Between the Rocky Mountains on the one side, and the Cascade and Nevada Mountains on the other, the land is a broad, high plateau, with a height of from 4000 to 8000 feet above the sea; and the States and territories which are included in these dry, almost rainless plateau lands have all, more or less, the same character—wide stretches of desert, completely barren, or covered with sage-brush, with occasional high pasture-valleys, watered, and green.

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#### CALIFORNIA.

Very different is the well-watered Pacific slope, with its forest-covered hills. Perhaps no region of the globe is so rich in the precious metals, gold and silver, as well as in quicksilver, iron, coal, and other valuable minerals; while the forests of the outer mountain-slopes afford inexhaustible supplies of timber. It is through the delightful land of California that we are most familiar with this region: everybody knows of California as the land of gold, where the lucky finders of great "booms," so they are called, become millionaires in a day, and where many a hapless miner who never comes across a fragment of the precious ore sinks into lower and lower depths of want and misery. But it is only of late that the world has taken account of

the great loveliness and exceeding fertility of this Western paradise, a land of lawny pastures,\* soft valleys and gentle heights; of unfailing verdure and brightness; of delicious fruits in the most lavish abundance, olive and grape, apple and pear, peach and strawberry by the acre; a land of glowing corn-fields and shadowy forests. Two ranges of mountains, the Sierra Nevada and the Coast Range, traverse the length of California, and between these is a long, low, broad valley, 500 miles long by 50 broad, of which the San Joaquin waters the southern half, and the Sacramento the northern half; and where the two rivers meet, there is a river delta of 25 miles, above their entry into the Bay of San Francisco—a magnificent harbour, one of the most famous in the world. This valley it is which contains not only the wooded, fertile, undulating district we have described, but the treasures of gold and of quicksilver for which California is famous. The gold region includes the whole length and breadth of the valley, following the line of the Sierra Nevada. The metal is found in the beds of the rivers, and in the gullies formed by the floods in the rainy season, but its chief seat is in the quartz rock of the mountains.

The real capital of California is San Francisco, the city of the Golden Gate, the great port of the West. A recent traveller says of it:—"The city itself presents no great attraction to the eye. The broad streets running in parallel lines right up the sandy hill-side, look like the ribs of some stranded monster, 'lank, and lean, and brown.' The most prominent object is the vast Palace Hotel, with its 755 rooms, which towers far above the general level

\* From 'Hesperothen,' W. H. Russell, LL.D.

of house-top, steeple, and factory chimney. San Francisco is perhaps the windiest city in the world, and during the summer, there is almost always a storm in the harbour, and a steady, somewhat chilly blast up the streets." Two of the sights of San Francisco are the Seal Rocks and the Chinese Quarter: the former are a group of rocks within easy sight of the shore, whereon huge sea-lions, many of them as big as an ox, continue to disport themselves under the very eyes of the citizens. The Chinese Quarter is one of the most important parts of the city, because Chinese workmen do most of the manual labour of San Francisco.

Our traveller says:—"The general impression made upon me by the appearance of the Chinese population was most favourable. I do not speak now of what one might see in going through certain streets which are known as the haunts of wickedness, which, sooth to say, seemed numerous enough; I refer to the business quarters, and to the crowds of cleanly, intelligent, well-behaved people (Chinese) of both sexes in the streets." The worst blots in their quarter are the frightful dens of the opium-smokers, where you may see a herd of miserable, dying, speechless wretches, with bright dreamy eyes, cadaverous sunken faces, trembling limbs, and wasted bodies, indulging in the vice that is surely killing them.

San Francisco does not bear a good name amongst the cities of the world: it is a city where much money is spent upon luxurious living, handsome equipages, fast-trotting horses; a man has become suddenly rich to-day, and may lose all to-morrow, so he spends lavishly while he can, with little thought of any future.

California is rich in fine mountain scenery which we cannot stop to describe; but no one can visit the state

without trying to see the famous Yosemite Valley, a wonder of the world for its marvellous loveliness. The traveller we last cited says: "I know nothing like the effect produced by Yosemite Valley when seen for the first time. You take in at one glance stupendous mountain ranges, all but perpendicular, beyond which you see the snowy crests of the great Sierra, the profound valley between them, a long vista of extraordinary magnificence, of cascades and precipitous waterfalls, and far down below a silvery river rushing through a forest composed of the noblest trees in the world, with patches of emerald green sward and bright meadows.

"Clambering over a mass of trunks of trees, the Fall, the Yosemite Fall, was before us—I cannot write more—no adjective will do. 'Two thousand six hundred and thirty-four feet; mind!' says the guide. 'I don't care,' thought we, 'it's the most beautiful and wonderful water-jump ever seen by human eye'—a considerable river which in its first plunge comes sheer down 1600 feet; then follow two more plunges over sheets of granite; and then it is free, and rushes past at our feet, a joyous flashing stream."

"Every one has heard of the 'Big Trees' of the valley, and knows all about the size and the number of these wonders of the world. They are either prostrate, mutilated, or decaying; not one has survived the stormy life he must have led for some 3000 years. Those which remain upright are scarred by fire and lightning, and drop their monster arms, hung with ragged foliage and sheets of bright moss. I cannot conceive any object so magnificent as one of these noble trees in the full vigour of mature treehood; but we could only fancy what it must have been by



measuring the stems, for there was not anywhere in the forest a tree to be seen which had not suffered."

### Questions on the Map of the United States.

1. Name the river and the lakes which form part of the northern boundary of the United States. To the west of the lakes, what does the boundary consist of? Name the eastern and western boundaries. The southern boundaries. Between what parallels do the United States lie?

2. Where are the New England states situated? Name them. Mention a town in Rhode Island. A town and a cape in Massachusetts.

3. Name the remaining states upon the Atlantic. What river drains the state of New York? Name three towns on this river. What lake washes the northern shores of this state? What island lies at the mouth of the Hudson? Name five towns in the remaining states. What range of mountains backs these seaboard states? In what direction do they run?

4. Name the states on the left bank of the Ohio. On the right bank. Name towns in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Kentucky. Name an important town on Lake Erie.

5. Name the states on the left bank of the Mississippi. Name a town in Wisconsin. A town in Illinois. On the shores of what lake do these towns stand? What town stands at the junction of the Mississippi and the Missouri?

6. The Prairies lie between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains:—name any states or territories (lands which have not yet been formed into states) within the Prairie country.

7. What states have coasts on the Gulf of Mexico? Name a seaport town on the delta of the Mississippi. Another seaport on the Gulf. Which is the largest of these southern states? What river forms a boundary between this state and Mexico? What tributary of the Mississippi forms its northern boundary?

8. What is the general direction of the Mississippi? What is the general direction of the Missouri? Which is the longer river at their confluence? Name two tributaries of the Missouri. Where do the Missouri and its tributaries rise? Name two other tributaries which join the Mississippi on its right bank. A tributary which joins it on the left. In what mountains does the Ohio rise?

9. Name the western states which lie partly or altogether amongst the Rocky Mountains. Name a town in Colorado. In this mountain-state is the "Great Divide," or water-parting; name five rivers which rise here, and say in what directions they flow, and which ocean each of them finally reaches. Name three of the highest summits of this region. A mountain pass.

10. What river, flowing westward, drains the uplands between two chains of the Rocky Mountains? This river cuts its way through the western chain,—what is the passage called? Into what gulf does this river discharge itself? What state, crossed by ridges of the Rocky Mountains, has it on its left bank?

11. Further north, near the beautiful district set apart as a "National Park," there is another "great divide":—name four rivers which rise here; say in what directions they flow, and into what oceans their waters finally fall. Name a peak in this region.

12. What lakes lie at the western foot of the Rocky Mountains? A city here. What name is given to the region between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada? Between what mountain ranges does Upper California lie? What rivers meet at San Francisco? Name a summit of the Cascade Mountains.

13. Name any other towns of the world in about the same latitudes as San Francisco, Denver, New Orleans, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Cleveland, Albany, and Boston.

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## MEXICO.

No country in the world is more delightfully placed, or more rich in all manner of natural gifts, than Mexico; and yet the small population (about 9,000,000) is constantly thinned by famine. The mass of the people dwell in great poverty, and every fourth village you come to in crossing the country is a robber settlement.

Mexico is really a narrow isthmus between the two vast oceans of the world, nowhere more than 500 miles across, and in the south scarcely more than a hundred. Here is a situation for commerce, unrivalled in the world! Yet Mexico possesses but little shipping; and her two chief ports, Vera Cruz on the Gulf of Mexico, and Acapulco on the Pacific, lie low; and at certain seasons, no European dare sleep a night in Vera Cruz, without falling a victim to yellow fever.

Judging by its position on the map—between 14° and 31° north latitude—you would think that Mexico must be an altogether tropical country, yet by far the greater part of it produces wheat, barley, maize, grapes, and all kinds of temperate fruits, apples, peaches, and strawberries—such strawberries! in such quantities, that after eating and preserving as many as they can, the Mexicans let heaps rot every year as not being worth the trouble of picking; beans and peas, potatoes, and vegetables of all kinds flourish here; in fact, with a few exceptions, just what is grown in every English county, or in Northern France, or Germany.

Central Mexico is a vast plateau, which becomes no warmer on approaching the equator, because the land gradually rises from 3000 feet where the plateau begins, to 9000 feet a little to the south of the city of Mexico: in fact, the southern part of the plateau is colder than the northern: but the air is everywhere clear, bracing, and delightful, and the temperature for the year is about the same as that of the countries to the south of the Alps. This plateau forms a sort of bridge to connect the Rocky Mountains of North America with the Andes of the south. Do not think of it as a flat table land: it is broken into many high valleys, each girded by its own wall of mountains which rise from the table-land to about the height of our highest English mountains.

The finest of these valleys is the great central valley of Mexico. It is about 200 miles long by 50 wide, and is one of the richest portions of the country. Looking down from the pass at its head, a splendid vale lies before you, rich with golden wheat-fields, with a fine river flowing through it; but only about one-tenth of the excellent land is under cultivation.

The want of rivers, or of any means of watering the soil, is the great defect of Mexico. Such streams as there are, frequently lose themselves at the bottom of channels 1000 feet deep, and with walls as steep as the sides of a house, covered all the way down with a luxuriant vegetation of trees and shrubs. These bright and fertile *barrancas* are often several miles across, with a small stream running through the middle of the valley at the bottom: but certainly no Alpine passes offer such difficulties to travellers.

The cities scattered over this Mexican plateau are handsome enough: there are the charming cities of Guadalajara, and Salamanca, and Queretaro—all with

good buildings and magnificent churches, and open markets, gay with flowers and abundant fruits, and lively with parrots and paroquets. Upon the pleasant raised pavements, bordered with trees, the ladies take exercise, arrayed in the Spanish mantilla and in long dresses, because a Mexican lady would take shame to herself if the passers-by could catch sight of her feet. Every lady wears a high-necked, long-sleeved chemise, most beautifully embroidered, in red, blue, or black, by her own clever fingers. The Mexicans are famous for their skill in embroidery.

Mexico, the capital, is a beautiful city, situated on a wide plateau, surrounded by lofty mountains. The streets are broad and clean, well-paved and well-lighted, and the principal square, which contains the cathedral, a palace, schools, and other public buildings, is one of the finest in the western world. The *paseos*, or walks, of Mexico are really delightful, planted with double rows of trees, and going far into the country on every side. The city has many fine churches and monasteries: indeed, all over the country the churches are numerous and fine, while the villages are wretched collections of huts, with earthen floors and ragged roofs, and never a window or opening for light; every one of them has quite a grand church served by priests who seem to be well off in spite of the poverty of their people.

To the south of the city, a chain of mighty volcanoes stretches across the country from east to west—not running in a line from north to south, as do the other volcanoes of America. You may see some of them from the city, with sombre sides, and a cap of snow 3000 feet deep, dazzling under the tropic sun; there are Orizaba and Istaccihuatl (the white woman), Popo-

catapetl (the smoking mountain), and Jorullo, much lower than the rest, but the youngest of the volcanoes, having arisen about a century ago, after a great volcanic eruption which raised all the surrounding district several feet. Jorullo still smokes a little, but the others are well-behaved giants which give little sign of their volcanic nature.

Hitherto, we have spoken only of the central plateau: but this is not the whole of Mexico: round this plateau lies a belt of really tropical country, varying from 50 to 200 miles in breadth; and the traveller who would reach the sea-port town of Vera Cruz must descend the plateau, and cross this tropical belt.

"The cliff by which we descended to the lowlands is almost perpendicular, and the road—which is swarming with pack-mules and long waggon-trains from the country below—takes twenty-two sharp turns down it; that we ever reached the foot to breathe once more in safety was only owing to the magnificent driving of our *cochero*.

"The country we pass through now is the strangest change from that we have left. We go through a long valley where are rich fields of maize and sugarcane, with hedges of huge aloes in full flower, and past palm-thatched huts, with green parrots crawling about the doorways, surrounded by neat gardens full of bananas and pine-apples; and through cool, shady groves, where oranges and mangoes and bananas, and a hundred other beautiful plants and flowers grow with the prodigal luxuriance one only sees in the tropics.

"Then the road leads through hot wide plains, through blinding dust and broiling sun, with the occasional shade of the coco-nut palm; and at last, white buildings appear, which are built entirely of

white coral, and soon we are within Vera Cruz:—an ill-omened city, the head-quarters of that most horrible disease, the *Vomito*, which rages in the city for several months of the year. It only disappears at the approach of a second plague, the *Norte*, a furious wind which drives away 'Yellow Jack,' but often prevents vessels from approaching the coast for days.

"Oh, the heat of that night in Vera Cruz! The very breeze was a sirocco, pouring hot air upon us, and by its very violence, heating instead of cooling one's skin. The town is small, but the market is well worth a visit, not only on account of the tropical fruits and vegetables, but for the quantities of birds, especially parrots, which the *Indios* bring in from the neighbouring forests."

The hot belt round the central plateau is called by the Mexicans the *Tierra Caliente*, or Torrid Zone: its products are altogether tropical—sugar, cotton, rice, coffee, tobacco, cocoa, indigo, tropical fruits—the banana, lime, pine-apples, figs, coco-nuts, guava, mango, and fifty other things. The plateau is known as the *Tierra Fria*, or Cold Zone, though certainly only the children of the tropics could think it cold: and a Temperate Zone, or *Tierra Templada*, is found in the long slopes by which the *Tierra Fria* is reached from the low coast plains.

Great as is the wealth of Mexico above ground, her mines of precious metals are her chief treasures. The principal deposits of gold and silver lie along the whole range of the *Tierra Madre*, as far as 21° N. lat. South of this, the whole breadth of the country is so dotted over with mines, that it may be described as one vast mining region, second to none in the world. The town of San Luis Potosi is also the centre of a mining region.

It is indeed sad that a country so abounding in natural riches should be in so impoverished and unhappy a condition. This is partly owing to the unsettled state of the government. Mexico is a Republic, but any discontented man may proclaim his views, get a following, and perhaps end as President of the Republic, to be displaced after a short civil war by another, as little worthy. And this state of things has lasted, more or less, throughout the present century, at the beginning of which Mexico declared itself independent of Spain, in whose possession it had been for 300 years. Another cause of weakness is to be found in the various races which hold the country. About a million whites, the descendants of the Spanish conquerors, live proud, indolent lives in the towns: about 5,000,000 of native Indians, speaking some forty different languages, till the land, work in the mines, and perform the small share of labour that is done by anybody in Mexico; and besides these, there is a population of a mixed race descended from whites and Indians.



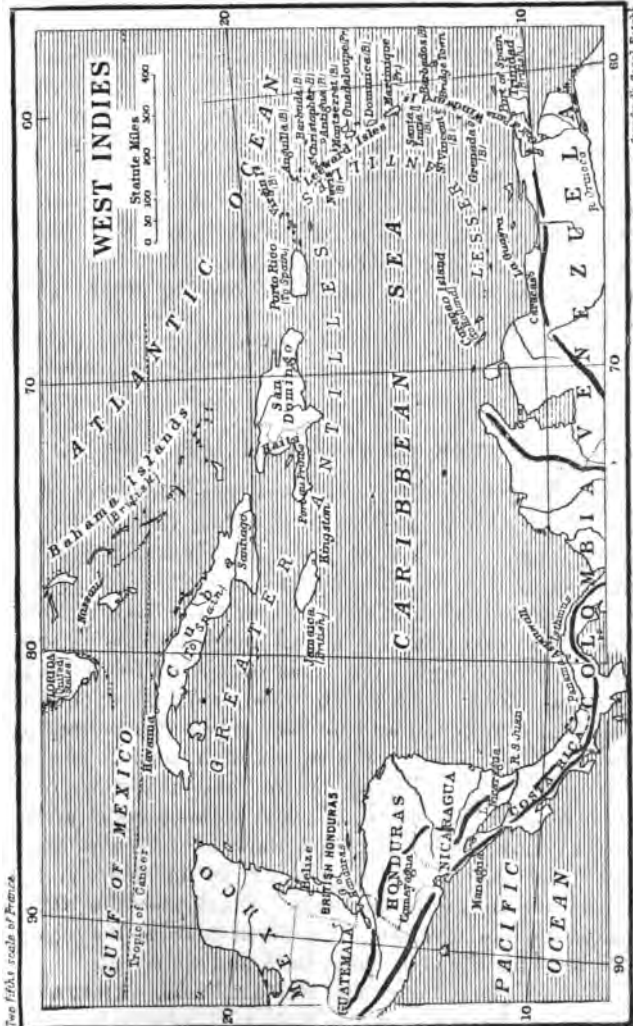
## THE WEST INDIES.

THE West Indian Islands form a long Archipelago, shutting in the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea. They are divided into three principal groups: the Greater Antilles, including the large islands of Cuba, Hayti, Porto Rico, and Jamaica; the low, flat, coralline group of the Bahamas, and the long chain of the Lesser Antilles, really a chain of volcanic mountain tops.

Though they lie almost entirely within the tropics, their elevation, the cool breezes off the surrounding seas, and the prevailing trade-wind which blows over them, make the climate of these islands bearable, and even pleasant, to Europeans so long as they are not called to labour in the fields. The southern islands have two rainy seasons, one in the summer, and one near the end of the year. The northern islands have their rainy season during the summer months. Terrific hurricanes sweep the coasts occasionally during the months of August and September.

Negroes form the most numerous class of the population, and some of these are still in a state of slavery in the Spanish islands. After these come the Europeans—Spanish, English, French, Dutch, &c.; and lastly, the mulattoes, or people of mixed European and negro blood.

The great industry of the islands, the growth of the sugar-cane, depends entirely upon negro labour; for, certainly, no European could work in the low-lying

[illegible]

sugar plantations under the tropical sun. Sugar, rum, and molasses, all the products of the cane, are the great articles of export. Coffee, cocoa, and cotton are largely cultivated, as well as tobacco, spices, certain dye-woods, and tropical fruits, such as bananas and pine-apples, the mango, guava, shaddock, pomegranate, &c. The negroes of the British West Indies have been free labourers since the Emancipation Act of 1834, but in most of the other islands, excepting Hayti, the blacks are still slaves.

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#### THE GREATER ANTILLES.

CUBA and Porto Rico, with some small dependencies, are the Spanish possessions in the West Indies. Cuba is the largest of the West India Islands, and produces more sugar than any country in the world. The great sugar plantations are upon the northern side of the island, and here you may see all the operations for the preparation of sugar—the great cane-shed, full of cut canes to the very roof, the steam-worked mill, upon the platform of which, crowds of half-naked negroes tramp up and down, feeding the rollers with armfuls of the cane: now the milky stream of cane-juice flows out from beneath the rollers; it passes through boiler after boiler; now it is thick and dark, now brown, now clear and golden, and now flung up in showers, to crystallise as it falls and cools. What times the little naked negroes have, tumbling about amongst the sugar and feasting alike on candy, cane, and molasses!

Besides sugar, cocoa, and coffee, tobacco, cotton, and indigo are largely grown in Cuba: its tobacco is espe-

cially famous; and every one has heard of Havana cigars, though perhaps every one does not know that Havana is a large and handsome town, beautifully situated, with much commerce and a large population.

It is by far the most important city and the greatest port in the West Indies, and it is the greatest sugar market in the world.

A range of mountains, rising to the height of 8000 feet, fills the centre of the island, much of which is covered with dense forests.

PORTO RICO, the second Spanish island, is highly cultivated, and has many cattle-farms, or "Estancias," as well as plantations of sugar, coffee, and tobacco.

HAYTI, or St. Domingo, is an island about the size of Ireland. The interior is mountainous, and the greater part of the island is covered with dense forests of mahogany, cedar, logwood, and other valuable timber.

It is remarkable chiefly for its stormy history. On the shores of Hayti, the first settlement of Spanish America was placed by Columbus; and here were planted the first gangs of negro slaves. In the course of time, certain French pirates established themselves on the western coasts, and, by the peace of Ryswick, this part of the island was ceded to France; but the French settlers proved brutal masters to their slaves, and during the period of the French Revolution a terrible insurrection broke out in Hayti which ended in the extermination of the Europeans and the setting up of a negro as Emperor of Hayti.

He did his best, and really sought the good of his people; but no settled government obtained in Hayti; revolution followed revolution, now it was a republic, now a monarchy, and now in a state of anarchy. At

the present time, the Spanish or eastern portion is known as the Dominican Republic, while the western half is the negro Republic of Hayti.

JAMAICA, an island about four-fifths the size of Yorkshire, is by far the most important of the British possessions in the West Indies. It has a central chain of high mountains—the Blue mountains (7000 ft.),—is well watered, has many capital harbours and a fertile soil, suited to the growth of the sugar-cane. Jamaica had at one time a bad name for yellow fever, and certainly the low valleys and coast plains where the cane is grown are not safe dwelling-places for Europeans; but by living temperately and betaking himself to the highlands in the wet seasons, the Englishman may thrive in the matter of health. In other respects, the prosperous days of the British planter appear to be over: fully three-fourths of the population are negroes, the rest principally mulattoes, and not more than one-twelfth being whites. The planters find it hard to get the negroes to work as free labourers, and since the Emancipation Act of 1831 the productions of the island have declined. Sugar, rum and molasses, coffee, allspice, cocoa, cotton, tobacco, ginger, indigo, and logwood are the principal exports; and Jamaica imports British manufactures for her own use, and for exportation to the neighbouring continent and islands.

The island is divided into three counties with familiar English names—Surrey, Middlesex, and Cornwall. Kingston is a busy port with a fine harbour, and is the most important town; near it are the ruins of Port Royal, once a beautiful city, but now almost entirely destroyed by earthquakes.

The government of Jamaica is carried on by a governor and council appointed by the British Crown.

Most of the smaller islands are under lieutenant-governors and councils, assisted as in Jamaica by a House of Assembly.

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#### THE LESSER ANTILLES.

BARBADOS is the most ancient colony of the British Empire. It is a level island, except in the north-east, which is called Scotland. The soil is thought to be exhausted, and manure is as necessary here as in England, but the quantity of sugar exported annually is astonishing.

Bridge Town, the capital, lies round the bay, and contains some handsome houses, but there are no shop windows as in an English town, and the buildings are all rather low for fear of hurricanes. Codrington College, a very handsome building, and the chief seat of education in the West Indies, is prettily placed on the borders of Scotland.

TRINIDAD.—The approach to Trinidad through the blue Gulf of Paria is more beautiful than the reader can imagine, unless he has seen for himself the glories of the tropics; and Port of Spain is one of the handsomest towns of the West Indies. The streets are wide, long, and straight; there are handsome stone houses and a public walk shaded with trees, a very handsome Protestant church, and a spacious market, lively with the gay costumes and merry chatter of French and Spanish market women. But the heat! "Gentle reader, whilst thou pokest thy coal fire, think, oh! think, of the mercury at 94° in the shade."

"On the morning of such a day, we set out to visit one of the finest cocoa plantations in the island. The

cocoa, which grows from ten to fifteen feet in height, is a delicate plant, and cannot bear exposure to the direct rays of the sun. For this reason, certain tall trees are left in the plantation, whose meeting branches and evergreen leaves form a sun-proof screen, under which the cocoa flourishes. One main road led through the plantation, from which numberless alleys branched off, and these alleys, and indeed all parts of the plantation, were fringed with coffee bushes, which, with their dark Portugal laurel leaves, jasmine blossoms, and most exquisite perfume, filled us with delight."

Trinidad is very fertile, and produces coffee, sugar, rum, molasses, a large quantity of cocoa, and some cotton and ginger. In the south-west is the famous Pitch Lake, which is really a wide plain covered with bitumen. The bitumen is used in making the roads, and there is always a hot unpleasant smell issuing from the lake under the action of the sun.

GRENADA is, perhaps, the most beautiful of the Antilles. The harbour is one of the finest in the West Indies, and is free as yet from hurricanes. The large and picturesquely placed town of St. George covers a peninsula which projects into the bay. In every direction the eye wanders over richly cultivated valleys, orchards of shaddock and oranges, houses with gardens, negro huts embowered in plantain leaves, mountains and little hills, wood and copse.

ST. VINCENT's is another lovely island; indeed, the view of the town of Kingston from the Bay is thought by many to be the most beautiful of the Antilles, but the landscape has not the Italian softness of Grenada.

STA. LUCIA, too, is amongst the beautiful Antilles. Nothing can exceed the beauty of night in St. Lucia, as in all these tropical islands; the great stars swim and

shimmer in a sea of the softest azure; and, looking round, you may see all the woods upon the mountains illuminated with tens of thousands of flaming torches moving in every direction, now gathering together in a sort of globe, now dispersing in spangles. No one who has not seen them can conceive the magical beauty of these tropical fire-flies.

DOMINICA.—The landscape behind the town of Roseau is one of the very finest in the West Indies. The valley runs up a gentle slope for many miles between mountains most of which are clothed to their cloudy tops with rich parterres of green coffee which perfumes the air. Going up the valley to visit the coffee plantations, you are struck with the size of the ferns—whole forests of them in the dips of the hills, each measuring twenty or twenty-five feet in height, and yet as dainty and delicate as the finest hot-house ferns in England.

MONTserrat is another charming island, which the inhabitants call the Montpelier of the West Indies, for its balmy air and healthful breezes.

NEVIS is, perhaps, the most captivating of the West Indian Islands. From the south and west it seems to be nothing but a cone, rising in the most graceful way out of the sea, and carrying its head in the clouds. It is deliciously green, perfectly cultivated; studded with the handsome houses of the old planters, and with churches peeping out from the most picturesque spots.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S had the honour of being named by Christopher Columbus. Stretching from the rugged central mountains to the shore are endless cane-fields, like a carpeting of the softest green velvet. Basseterre, the capital, is a large town with many good houses and one large square.

ANGUILLA is an exception to most West Indian



islands; here you do not see countless windmills employed in crushing the sugar cane, nor the tropical palm, which is an equally characteristic feature of West Indian scenery. A great source of wealth to the island is a large salt pond, and the inhabitants think as much of their crop of salt as the planters do of their canes.

ANTIGUA has no name for beauty amongst the West Indies; it is supposed to be dry and dusty, and it is true that the inhabitants depend almost entirely upon rain water. Yet Antigua has fine old houses in lovely green parks belonging to the planters, and pleasant pastures, and a fringe of hills round the coast, and gorgeous flowers and juicy fruits, and most abundant verdure even by its roadsides. More than half the island is covered with sugar plantations.

BARBUDA is really a private estate belonging to the Codrington family; here are no sugar plantations, and very little land is under cultivation at all, but cattle, pigs, and poultry are raised, and there is a fine deer park. The island is flat and uninteresting.

The above are the most important of the Lesser Antilles which belong to Britain. Guadeloupe and Martinique, with its neat, bright little capital of St. Pierre, are the most important of the French islands. Of the half-dozen Dutch islands, Curaçao, where the liqueur of that name is prepared from the juice of the lime, is the best known.

The BAHAMAS are the most northerly of the West Indies; they include several hundreds of little islets, only about twenty of which are inhabited. They are all low and level, the lowest, which are called *Keys*, hardly rising above the surface of the water. Salt, timber, turtles, and cattle are their most valuable products.

The BERMUDAS are a small group of coral islands, only five of which are inhabited, fully half of the population being blacks or men of colour. Great numbers of turtle are caught in the summer, and the fisheries are important. Both of these groups of coral islands belong to Britain.

**Questions on the Map of the West Indies, &c.**

1. What group of islands in the Atlantic Ocean lies across the Tropic of Cancer? The largest island of the group. To what Power do these islands belong? Off which of the United States do they lie?

2. What large island lies to the south of the Tropic, at the entrance to the Gulf of Mexico? To what Power does it belong? Name its two principal towns. What name is given to the group of large islands to which Cuba belongs? Name the other islands of the group. Which of these are Spanish? Which British? Describe the position of Jamaica. What is its chief town? The chief town of Haiti. What is the eastern division of this island called? How is the Caribbean Sea partly enclosed on the north?

3. What general name is given to the cluster of small islands which enclose the Caribbean Sea on the east? These are divided into two groups:—name the Windward Isles which belong to Britain. The capital of Barbados.

4. Name two French islands in the Leeward group. Seven British isles in this group. A British isle off the mouth of the Orinoco. Its chief town. Write a list of the British West Indies in the order of size. What four European Powers hold possessions among these islands? Which island belongs to the Dutch?

5. What states of South America lie along the southern shores of the Caribbean Sea? Name the isthmus which connects the two Americas. A town on the isthmus. Which of the states of Central America have coasts on both oceans? Which are washed by the Pacific only? Which by the Atlantic (or Caribbean Sea) only? What part of Central America belongs to Britain? What gulf divides it from the state of the same name? A town in British Honduras. A lake and a river in Nicaragua. A town in Honduras. What country of North America reaches into Central America?

## BRAZIL.

THIS vast empire, larger than the whole of Europe, is by far the most peaceful and prosperous State in South America, as it is the only one which is not subject to the perpetual revolutions and insurrections which make up the history of the republics. Compared with the neighbouring States, Brazil has been well and wisely governed since 1825, when the Brazilians shook off the authority of Portugal, and elected the eldest son of the king of Portugal as their emperor.

The general aspect of Brazil, as seen from the sea, is rugged and mountainous; and a high ridge, sometimes called the Brazilian Andes, runs nearly parallel with the coast. Then, a broad valley; then, another level, forming a region of highlands about as lofty as the first; these sink into the sandy deserts called Campos Parexis, which occupy a large part of the central regions of South America; beyond the deserts is another chain of mountains, the highest in Brazil, where the Paraguay and other great rivers take their rise, and where are some of the mines for which Brazil is famous, rich mines of gold, diamonds, and other precious stones, as well as of iron and copper.

Various spurs from these chains run to the south, to the right, to the left, until the map of Brazil looks pretty well herring-boned with mountain chains; so much so, that the great rivers the Madeira, Tapajós, Tocantins, &c., are unable to find a passage for themselves to the Atlantic, and have swelled the mighty

Amazon with their tributary floods. After the Amazon, the San Francisco is the largest of the rivers which make their way to the ocean.

As there are few river mouths, so are there few capes and bays in all the vast extent of coast belonging to Brazil. There is the small inlet on which the town of Maranham stands; Bahia is built on a small promontory which encloses a bay; and there is the Bay of Rio Janeiro, one of the best harbours in the world; and these are the only inlets worth speaking of between the mouth of the Amazon and that of the La Plata. So that, notwithstanding its long coast-line, Brazil has not great advantages for commerce.

But, you will say, it has such waterways within itself as are to be found nowhere else in the world,—in the Amazon and its mighty tributaries, some of them 1000, and even 2000 miles in length. Look at the map, and see how few are the towns marked in this vast basin of the Amazon. There is Para, the indiarubber port which stands on the Para, the most navigable of the mouths of the Amazon. Higher up the river is the small town of Santarem; higher still, the pretty little town of Obydos; Barra, and a few Indian villages: and this is all. The Amazon ought to be a great highway for the world's commerce, instead of which it rolls through impenetrable forests, almost as silent and as little marked by human activities as when the ill-fated Captain Orellana first ventured to sail down this marvellous inland flood.

The magnificent river known by the names of the Amazon, the Marañon, and the Orellana, is supposed to be the largest river in the world. It is formed by two large rivers, which unite on the borders of Peru, and at last falls into the Atlantic by eighty-four mouths,

after having received the waters of nearly two hundred tributary streams. Reckoning all its windings, it is more than 4000 miles in length, and at its mouth it is 180 miles broad. The Rio Negro, one of its tributaries, is connected with the Cassiquaire, a branch of the Orinoco, so that there is thus open water-way between these two great rivers of South America; and this curious connection offers a hint of what may take place in the future, when forests shall be cut down, and when the stir of busy trading towns shall awake in the now silent depths.

The estuary of La Plata is the great drain for all the central waters south of the tributary streams of the Amazon.

As in all tropical lands, the northern provinces of Brazil are subject to heavy rains, tornadoes, storms, in a word to the utmost fury of the elements; but the southern regions are blest with a settled, temperate, and most healthful climate.

The soil appears to be most fertile everywhere, excepting on the Campos Parexis, but not one-hundredth part of the country is under cultivation; indeed, the whole of the interior is little more than an immeasurable forest.

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#### THE MINES.

Villa Rica, or Ouro Preto, occupies two hills and the valley between them. The whole town is white-washed, and there are some really handsome public buildings and fountains, churches, a palace, and a treasury wherein is a mint; and in this mint, not less than two millions of pounds troy-weight of gold were

coined within a hundred years or so, all of it washed from the hills upon which Villa Rica stands, and smelted in the smelting-house of the town.

Dreary and unsightly enough is this rich mining district. The mountains and the high valleys consist of a crust of granite overlaid with clay and schist, and in this soft covering it is that the gold is found, sometimes in pellets as big as a pea, but more often in grains so minute that you could hardly see them without a microscope. Below the town of Villa Rica is a small high valley surrounded by mountains. A river flows through the valley, and this river is joined by several streams, all of which have flowed down auriferous (gold-bearing) hills, and through auriferous valleys, and have torn up the soft clay covering of the hills in their course, and so have done a great deal of "gold-washing." The people of Villa Rica know this well; and in times of flood everybody rushes to the river and carries home baskets and barrows and carts full of the precious mud. No yellow gleam in the mud betrays the golden secret to outsiders, but days of patient washing are sure to be rewarded by, at any rate, a coating of gold on the vessel through which the mud of the river is drained, again and again. But the miners do not trust alone to the mud brought down by the river; the hill-sides, the valleys, every acre of this rich district has channels cut in it through which an artificial stream is driven, well mixed with the rich clay, and blankets, or hairy hides, are set up to catch the grains of gold as the stream is driven through them. Everywhere are water-trenches, and mounds of sifted clay; and the hill-sides are torn, and pierced, and utterly desolate looking.

Within an easy journey of Villa Rica are the famous

topaz mines of Capao. "We entered," says a traveller, "a sort of quarry, wherein the rocks were embedded in clay and schist as in the gold mines. In one part I observed two negroes poking in the little soft veins with a piece of rusty iron, and on enquiring what they were about, I was told they were miners searching for topazes." The topazes are of various colours—grey, bright yellow, carnation,—and are sometimes very large: as large as a fist, the miners say.

Still amongst this rich eastern chain of mountains is another treasure, more precious than gold or the topaz; a wide district, of which Villa do Principe and Tejuco, or Diamantina, are the centres, is fabulously rich in diamonds. In early days the pebbles of the little streams were gathered by the gold-washers, and used as counters in games and as pretty playthings. By-and-by, some of these pretty pebbles found their way to Holland; the Dutch lapidaries polished them, and, behold, some of the largest and most brilliant diamonds that had yet been seen in the world! Of course, the Dutch merchants profited by this discovery; but in course of time, the Brazilian government took the diamond mines into their own hands.

We have noticed only some of the mines in the eastern mountain range; but there are numerous valuable mines in the interior, and, very probably, many districts yet unworked where the earth is more or less auriferous.

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#### THE FOREST AND THE CAMPO.

No one who has not seen it can form any idea of a Brazilian forest: the trees are majestic and beautiful beyond our conception; their very trunks appear to be

of a hundred colours and a hundred shapes; the leaves are abundant, beautiful, endlessly various; but the flowers—there are no words to describe them; they are splendid, brilliant, enormous, queer: orange and white and pink, crimson and gold and purple. It seems as if every tree were always laden with blossoms, because luxuriant parasites twine round the stem until frequently the whole tree is a mass of huge, gorgeous blossoms.

Palms, with their waving crowns rising fifty feet above the green heads of the trees below them, are an ornament of the forests, the beauty and majesty of which no words can describe. If the eye turn from the lofty trees to the low brushwood which covers the ground, behold a flower-show, stretching for countless miles in every direction, as if all the hothouses in the world had sent their glowing brilliant treasures to be spread under the trees of these vast forests. But you make your way in these marvellous forests a step at a time, and with the aid of a hatchet, for the creeping plants have spread thick walls of matting from tree to tree.

The animal life of the forests is as endlessly various, as glowing, as peculiar as the vegetation; there are the living gems of the forests, the humming-birds, of many varieties, some of them no bigger than bees, burying their tiny forms in the deep bell-blossoms, whose cups hold the nectar of their dainty diet: then there are the butterflies, as large as these, and as gorgeous: and the beetles with radiant wing-cases, worn as an adornment by the ladies of Brazil: and parrots and paroquets with plumage of brilliant dye: and enormous white ants, the plague of the forests, which raise for themselves colonies of hills, fully three feet high: and the mosquitoes—name of dread to all



dwellers within the tropics: and, drollest denizens of the forest, there are the innumerable monkeys which, except in the still noon of the tropics when all nature goes to sleep, keep up a perpetual stir of life, with their queer antics and their noisy chattering. But all this animation may only belong to the margins of the mighty forests; and it is possible that in the green depths to which no man has penetrated there is little sign of animal life.

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#### THE COAST TOWNS.

Of the twenty provinces of Brazil there are only four which are altogether inland; but the coast provinces reach far away into the almost unexplored interior. The towns of the interior are small and of little consequence, but the seaports of the coast are the seats of a very flourishing commerce, carried on with England, Russia, Germany, Norway and Sweden, in fact, with every commercial State of the world.

The low plains which skirt the coast produce sugar freely; and, until of late years, its sugar plantations were the chief source of wealth to Brazil: now, however, coffee forms the chief export of the country, which has become the greatest coffee-growing region in the world. The coffee plant loves the healthy hill-side, and many German colonies are planted on the hills. The tobacco plant grows freely in the forest-clearings, and tobacco is also an important article of export; cotton, like sugar, flourishes on the unhealthy plains. Among the other exports are, gold and precious stones; hides and tallow, tinned meat and horns, from the vast

herds of the southern plains; and dye-woods, drugs, timber, and indiarubber from the forests.

All the towns are white and bright looking; the streets are usually narrow, but this is no drawback in a hot climate, as one side of the street affords some shelter to the other from the burning rays of the sun. Rio Janeiro (the river of January), the capital, is said to be "a bad copy of Lisbon," with a large square facing the sea, and suburbs stretching up the hill-sides. It is seated on a beautiful bay, one of the finest in the world, and has the largest commerce of any city in South America; the streets are lively with coaches and omnibuses, and rather finely dressed foot-passengers. Bahia is a more interesting city than Rio Janeiro, with a magnificent cathedral and several very fine churches. Bahia also is a well-known commercial town, which receives annually an immense quantity of English goods. Pernambuco, another important port, is a sort of Venice of the west, whose lofty whitewashed houses, steeples, and towers appear to rise gradually out of the sea. Its harbour is formed by a reef of coral rocks. Para, the port of the Amazons, we have already spoken of. San Paulo carries on great trade by means of its harbour, twelve miles distant. The towns of the interior are too small to require notice here.

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## THE REPUBLICS OF THE LA PLATA.

America is the continent of Republics, and every Republic to the south of the United States is in a perpetual state of revolution. Everywhere the country is scourged by troops of armed and mounted rebels, as much to be dreaded as highwaymen, who form a party for the election of a new President and new Ministers. No sooner is the new President in power than his enemies gather their forces, set up a man of their own, and infest the highways until their leader is at the head of the State; and so on in endless succession. Therefore it is, that though these Republics include some of the richest and most fertile lands in the world, they never enjoy the prosperity which arises from a settled government and lasting peace.

After Brazil, the Argentine Republic is the largest State of South America, and notwithstanding that it has its full share of these political troubles, it is the most prosperous and civilised: it has good railways, and good schools, and a very extensive trade with Europe.

The great water-course of the country is the Paraná, formed by the union of the Upper Paraná and Paraguay rivers. This is a noble river in all parts of its course through Argentine territory, scarcely ever less than a mile in width, and in some places spreading out in many channels to a breadth of ten miles. Nothing can be finer than the confluence of the Paraná and Paraguay, a short way above the town of Corrientes.

Corrientes, seated at the confluence of the rivers, is built on a high and jutting point of land from which it commands the whole scene. Like all Spanish

cities, it is laid out in squares; there are some good churches, and some good houses; and streets of poor houses which are no better than mud hovels; but the number of trees and shrubs, flowers and fruits, in the squares and gardens of the city give it a bright, picturesque air. It is a place of busy trade, because the hides, hair, wool, and tallow off the pampas are brought here to be shipped for Buenos Ayres.

Down the river we go, through the vast pampas, covered with coarse grass, over which roam quite innumerable herds of wild horses and cattle; the distant Gran Chaco on our right shows stretches of dark forest, and here and there a gleaming white patch appears, a "salina," the bed of a salt lake whose waters have disappeared under the hot sun. But we have soon left these behind, and are still in the interminable green sea of the pampas. We catch sight of Cordova, the second town of the State, where there is an observatory; we stop at Rosario, a busier town than Corrientes, and always with the same trade—in hides and hair, wool and tallow, for this animal-produce forms the wealth of the plains.

At last we have reached Buenos Ayres, the great port, and the only large city of the State; and a disappointing city it is to behold after sailing down so splendid a stream. There are however some fine public buildings, all whitewashed, and the city is laid out regularly in square blocks. The inhabitants are of every shade of colour—the swarthy negro, the mulatto, the red Pampa Indian, the Spaniard, and the ruddy Englishman.

Buenos Ayres is seated on the broad estuary of the Paraná and Uruguay, the Rio de la Plata, the River of Silver, which gives name to the Argentine, or *Silver*,

Republic, and which was so named in the first place, because the discoverer of this mighty sea-like river found silver ornaments amongst the natives on its shores.

Besides her trade with England, from which she receives manufactured goods, Buenos Ayres imports from France great abundance of finery, wine, and other articles; she trades with China for silk, teas, crapes; and with every maritime country of the world for its own commodities; for all of which she pays in hides, tallow, horse-hair, wool, and skins.

Changeable as the climate of Buenos Ayres is, now 90° in the shade, now falling to 35°, or 40°, yet, on the whole, it deserves its name, "*Buenos Ayres*," "Fine Air."

"A stranger would think that where beef was to be had for next to nothing, and fish for the trouble of picking it up, there could not be many beggars. He would be mistaken. In Buenos Ayres there are plenty of beggars, but then they beg in style. They almost all ride. Mounted on his steed with a wallet behind him, the beggar goes from house to house, soliciting alms for the love of God."

Even in the city, you may come across groups of the Pampa Indians, a wandering, but on the whole, a peaceful tribe, who generally live on pretty good terms with the people of Buenos Ayres. They come to trade with their wares—beautifully plaited reins for bridles, head-pieces for horses, skins of various sorts, horse girths of various colours, lassos and bolas for the capture of the wild cattle, covers for saddles, and other articles of horse-gear; for these they get blankets, knives, tobacco, a little white cloth, and a supply of spirits.

It is generally known that America is indebted to Spain for the small stock out of which have grown her

present immense herds—thousands upon thousands, millions upon millions, of horses and horned cattle. In 1535, one Mendoza, who landed at Buenos Ayres, brought a few horses with him, some fifteen or twenty; later, another Spaniard took a dozen or so of horned cattle into Paraguay. These have increased until, “when I first landed at Buenos Ayres,” says a traveller, “I went to the barracas or hide warehouses; large as these were, there was not space for the produce, and the hides they could not contain were stowed in immense heaps in the spacious courts. It was computed that three millions of hides were stowed away in those barracas, besides horse skins, hair, and tallow. At Monte Video it was nearly the same; while the country on both sides of the River Plate seemed as if groaning under the immense pressure of the teeming multitudes of quadrupeds.”

Few things take one's breath away more than the accounts of the slaughter of the horned cattle and horses of the Pampas. Every one knows how the Guacho, the half-barbarous cattle-breeder of Spanish descent, gallops amongst a herd with his lasso, which is flung over the head of now one, now another, of the infuriated beasts. But there are more rapid ways of securing the hides—the carcass is worth little or nothing here. The slaughtering of the wild horses, which roam the plain in herds, five or ten thousand strong, is managed in this way.

From thirty to fifty men are employed when any particular herd is to be taken; they form an immense corral, or enclosure, made of very strong wooden stakes, bound together by hide ropes, capable of holding from five to ten thousand horses. “Then the men, mounted on very powerful horses, go into an adjoining wood,

and forming a semicircle, they drive before them some large herd of horses which they have already fixed upon. With shouts and cries, they keep closing in upon the herd, driving them, though nearly in a frantic state, to the edge of the forest. Then the wild and hunted animals rush across the plain, and are gradually urged towards the opening of the corral. This goes on until the corral is filled. Then, a given number are packed in a small adjoining pen, in which they are brought to the ground by the bolas of the Guachos, slaughtered while lying powerless, dragged out of the enclosure, and skinned on the surrounding grounds."

After the horned cattle and horses are flayed, their hides are staked in the ground to dry in the sun, and are finally collected and carried by means of long trains of bullock-waggon to the port. There they are built up in large piles in the barracas—a process which smooths and flattens them—and here they wait until they are shipped to Liverpool or elsewhere. Much of this most remunerative trade is in the hands of enterprising British merchants.

The preparation of tinned meats, and of extract of meat, is another profitable trade, by means of which the crowded countries of Europe get some of the excellent beef and mutton which would otherwise be wasted upon the Pampas. Fray Bentos and Paysandu, on the Uruguay river, are important centres of this industry.

What has been said of the Argentine Republic applies to the two smaller Republics of *Paraguay*, enclosed between the rivers Paraguay and Paraná, and *Uruguay* or Banda Oriental (the eastern district), on the eastern coast, and watered by the Uruguay. They, too, form part of the vast Pampas. Their wealth consists in their splendid pastures, which support immense

herds of cattle, horses, and sheep. *Estancias*, or cattle-farms, are dotted at intervals all over the land. The inhabitants are, in part, the descendants of the original Spanish settlers, mixed with the native Indians, and in part immigrants—English, French, Swiss, Germans, Americans. Paraguay, however, has a distinct trade in "*yerba maté*" a tea made from the dried leaves of a kind of holly that grows along the central heights and is the universal drink of these countries. Asuncion, the half-deserted capital, trades in this tea.

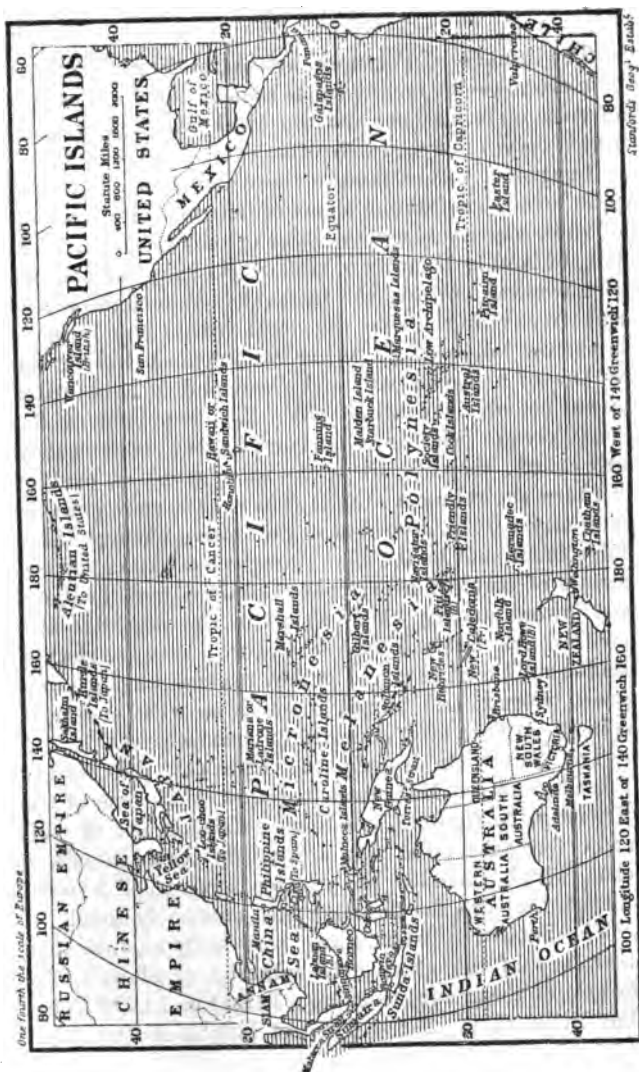
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## POLYNESIA.

THE name Polynesia, or, the "many islands," is usually employed to include all the small islands and groups of islands in the wide Pacific, which are not included in the Australian and East Indian archipelagoes. By far the greater number of these lie to the south of the equator, that is, in the southern half of the torrid zone; and so thickly are they scattered here, as to suggest the idea that they are but remnants of former continents—a suggestion which we have not space to go into, but which is supported by the peculiar productions of the islands.

The smaller islands of Polynesia fall, for the most part, within the ten following groups, three of which are to the north and seven to the south of the equator. The Sandwich, Caroline, and Ladrone Islands in north latitude; and the Friendly Islands, the Navigators Islands, Cook's Islands, the Austral Islands, the Society Islands, the Low Archipelago, and the Marquesas, all south of the equator. For about 3000 miles from Valparaiso the sea is almost free from islands; but thence to the East Indies, an immense belt of ocean, nearly 5000 miles in length, and 1500 in breadth, is so studded with them as to be almost one continuous archipelago. Very few of these gems of the ocean are more than a few miles in extent; Hawaii, indeed, is about the size of Yorkshire, and Tahiti and some others of the more western groups rank among the larger islands.



Strong, Deep, Elastic

The islands of Polynesia are naturally divided into two classes,—the mountainous islands, which are mostly of volcanic formation; and the coral islands, low reefs, raised only a few feet above the level of the sea.

Imagine a belt of land in the wide ocean, not half a mile broad, but forming a sort of irregular circle, a ring of land, sometimes several miles in circumference: this ring of land is literally a bank of glowing flowers and rich tropical verdure, the feathery foliage of the coconut tree rising above the rest: within the bank is a narrow beach of glittering whiteness encircling the waters of a lagoon, still and clear, and of a beautiful green colour, in contrast with the deep blue of the outer ocean. These are the coral islands, *atolls* as they are called: they are all of the same shape—a bank of verdure encircling a still lagoon with a snowy beach. You may sail day after day, day after day, amongst these fairy islets, and in the blue transparent waters you see forests of coral of every colour, studded with brilliant sea-flowers, among which shoals of the brightest and swiftest fish dart and flash to and fro; here are elegant shells, nimble crimson and yellow prawns, long, gliding green worms, and purple sea-urchins with enormous spines,—truly a strange world of enchantment.

The Sandwich Islands, the Ladrões, the Society Islands, and the Marquesas, together with some of the Friendly, Navigators, and Cook's Islands are of volcanic formation; the rest are chiefly coral islands, a class which includes the greater number of islands, though they are, for the most part, extremely small.

The Sandwich Islands are more truly mountainous than any of the others, the summits of Hawaii, the largest of the group, reaching a height of 14,000 feet—but little short of the greatest height of the Alps.

The whole of Hawaii is a mass of volcanic matter, and here is one of the most famous active volcanoes of the world. There are two active volcanoes in the Friendly Islands, besides others which emit smoke in the smaller groups.

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## Part II.

Many of the South Sea Islanders belong to the brown races, resembling the Malay in general features, and speaking a somewhat similar tongue.

The western Polynesian Islands are inhabited by tribes of black complexion and woolly hair—the “Polynesian negroes.” The meridian of  $180^{\circ}$  nearly divides the brown and the black races, the Fiji Islands being the first, as you go westward, in which the black tribes are found.

The Fijians and the inhabitants of New Guinea and the other western isles belong to the same race as the native inhabitants of Australia.

The South Sea Islanders are naturally intelligent, and capable of a high degree of education. Their island life has made them for the most part a seafaring race; and they show great skill and boldness in the construction and management of their canoes. They show skill, too, in making their weapons, and in weaving stuffs for their own clothing. Some of them are much more warlike and barbarous than others, and in some of the islands, the practice of cannibalism was found to prevail. Various forms of idolatry existed among them, and the influence of their priests was all-powerful.

But the habits and institutions of the Polynesians have been greatly altered during the last forty years by the presence of the missionary: many of the

islanders have been converted to Christianity. There are resident missionaries in nearly all the principal islands, and the native inhabitants of the Sandwich Islands in particular are now a civilised and Christian community.

Nothing can be more delightful than the perpetual spring which reigns in these sunny isles; heat and drought, storm and tempest, even the gradual changes of the seasons, are almost unknown here. Situated in the torrid zone, and supplied with abundant moisture by the ocean winds, every one of them is clad with the most luxuriant green vegetation. Almost every plant necessary for the food of man grows spontaneously, and some most valuable plants are peculiar to these isles. Among these is the bread-fruit tree, which affords the principal food of the natives; plantain, arrowroot, cocoa-nut, yam, and sweet potato, are native to all the islands. All edible fruits and vegetables are, however, found to flourish here,—the orange, lemon, lime, citron, pomegranate, fig, &c. &c.; and the sugar-cane, coffee, cotton, and tobacco are cultivated. Tree-ferns fill every dell, and nothing can exceed the grace and beauty and glorious colours of the flowering plants.

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### Part III.

The most important group south of the equator is that of the *VITI* or *Fiji* Islands, consisting of nearly a hundred inhabited islands—all of them mountainous, fertile, and lovely: *Viti* and *Vanua* are the two largest islands, and *Levuka* is the seaport of the group, exporting cocoa-nut oil and cotton. The *Fiji* Islands are the most eastwardly group in which the Polynesian

negroes are met with: they are an intelligent, clever people, and have, within the last few years, made great progress in civilisation. More than once the native chiefs offered to transfer the sovereignty of the group to the British Government; in 1874, the islands were annexed; and, since that event, great progress has been made in the arts of civilised life.

The SOCIETY ISLANDS, a volcanic group, mountainous, beautiful, and very fertile, out in the centre of the South Pacific, belong to France. The largest island, Tahiti, the "Gem of the Pacific," is celebrated for the extreme beauty of its mountain valleys and cascades

Landing at Papiete, the port of Tahiti, we are in the midst of a scene of extraordinary brightness and life. It is market-day, and women in red, blue, and green garments, and men in garb of every colour—both alike adorned with flower-wreaths on head or neck—are coming in from the country, by sea and by land, to sell their produce. The market buildings are partitioned across with great bunches of oranges, plantains, and many-coloured vegetables hung on strings. The gaily dressed, flower-decorated native crowd look more like people out for a holiday than working folk about their business.

Leaving the town, we go into the open country: imagine all the hot-houses you have ever seen thrown into one, and magnified immensely and laid out as a gentleman's park, and you will have some sort of idea of the beauty and colour, and rich luxuriance of this country, traversed by grassy roads fringed with coconut palms, leading through plantations of coffee and sugar-cane, cotton and maize, and every now and then giving a glimpse of the sea and the beach and the coral reefs; and by-and-by you enter a forest, and a foot-

path leads you to one of the magnificent waterfalls for which the island is famous.

The SANDWICH ISLANDS are by far the most important of those north of the equator. There are eight larger islands in the group, including Hawaii, the largest island in the open Pacific. Here is the famous volcanic mountain, Mauna Loa, nearly 14,000 feet high, with a yawning crater, Kilauea—a terrible hissing, glowing lake of fire. Of this frightful lake, Mrs. Brassey says: "We were standing on the extreme edge of a precipice, overhanging a lake of molten fire, a hundred feet below us, and nearly a mile across. Dashing against these cliffs on the opposite side, with a noise like the roar of a stormy ocean, waves of blood-red, fiery, liquid lava hurled their billows upon an iron-bound headland, and then rushed up the face of the cliffs to toss their gory spray high in the air."

Hawaii was once a name of terror—the scene of the massacre of Captain Cook, who discovered these islands in 1778. But times have changed. The missionaries have been at work; European customs have been adopted, along with Christianity; the language has been reduced to writing, and the people are being educated; and the islands now form an independent nation under a native king: Kalakua, the present king, paid a recent visit to London and other European capitals with a view to advancing the condition of his people. The commerce of the Sandwich Islands in sugar, rice, coffee, "pula" or vegetable silk, wool, and sandal-wood, now extends to all parts of the Pacific.

Honolulu, the capital of the group, is the largest town in all Polynesia, and is regularly built in streets and squares.

"The island is walled in by a coral reef against

which the surf beats with a sound of perpetual thunder. Within the reef lies a calm surface of water of a wonderful blue; and beyond the blue, nestling amongst cocoa-nut trees and bananas, umbrella trees and bread-fruits, oranges, mangoes, hibiscus, and passion-flowers, almost hidden in deep, dense greenery, is Honolulu.

"No sooner do we cast anchor than we are surrounded by hundreds of canoes laden with a motley crowd of whites, natives, Chinamen, and others. The natives are rich-brown men and women, with wavy, shining black hair, large lustrous eyes, and rows of perfect teeth like ivory.

"The women were arrayed in pure white, crimson, yellow, scarlet, blue, or light green. The men displayed their lithe graceful figures to the best advantage in white trousers and gay Garibaldi shirts. Without exception the men and women wore wreaths and garlands of flowers, twined round their hats and thrown carelessly round their necks; flowers unknown to me, but redolent of the tropics in fragrance and colour.

"After leaving the town, we drove along roads shaded with the dense leafage of overarching trees—umbrella trees, bamboo, mango, orange, bread-fruit, monkey pod, palms, alligator pears, and huge-leaved wide-spreading trees, many of them rich in parasitic ferns, and others blazing with bright fantastic blossoms. The air was heavy with odours of gardenia, tuberose, oleanders, roses, lilies, and the great white trumpet-flower, and the verandahs were festooned with a gorgeous trailer with magenta blossoms, passion-flowers, and a vine with masses of yellow, waxy flowers.

"In the deep shade of this perennial greenery the people dwell. They decorate and festoon everything with flowering trailers until you cannot tell which is



house and which is vegetation. Each house has a large garden with bright green lawns and banks of blazing, many-tinted flowers. Fences and walls are altogether buried among passion-flowers, geraniums, fuchsias, and jessamine, which cluster about them in the wildest profusion.

"Honolulu is quite unique. It is said that 15,000 people are stowed away in the low-browed shadowy houses under the glossy, dark-leaved trees; but, except in one or two streets, it looks like a large village, or rather, a collection of villages."

"NEW GUINEA, or Papua, the largest island in all Polynesia, is about five times as large as England and Wales. Very little is at present known of the interior. A range of mountains appears to cross the island from north-west to south-east, reaching a height of 18,000 feet, the highest mountains in all Polynesia. The soil is exceedingly fertile, but the country is covered almost everywhere with dense virgin forests, in which are countless birds of the most gorgeous and beautiful plumage, but few or none of the larger animals; such as there are are marsupials. The natives, a race of black, frizzly-haired people, live in small villages, "kampongs," under headmen, who have not much authority. There is but little trade, and the Papuans are still sunk in a state of ferocious barbarism: they tattoo their bodies, wear hardly any clothing, contrive to run pieces of wood or iron through the cartilage of the nose, and are altogether a savage race." \*

\* Keith Johnston's 'Geography.'

**Questions on the Map of the Pacific Islands.**

1. Between what continents are these island groups? Most of them lie within the Tropics,—the group nearest to the northern tropic? the groups nearest to the Tropic of Capricorn? They are classified into three divisions:—Give (a) the Polynesian groups; (b) the Melanesian groups; (c) the Micronesian groups. Which groups include the largest islands?

2. The groups within a thousand miles or so of the east coast of Australia. A large island off the south of Australia. About how far to the south-east of Australia does New Zealand lie? Of how many large islands does the colony consist? A group to the east of New Zealand.

3. An immense island to the north of Australia: divided from it by what straits? What group lies to the north-west of New Guinea? What group encloses the China Sea? An immense island which lies across the Equator. Two other great islands on the Equator east and west of Borneo. Name the largest of the Sunda Islands.

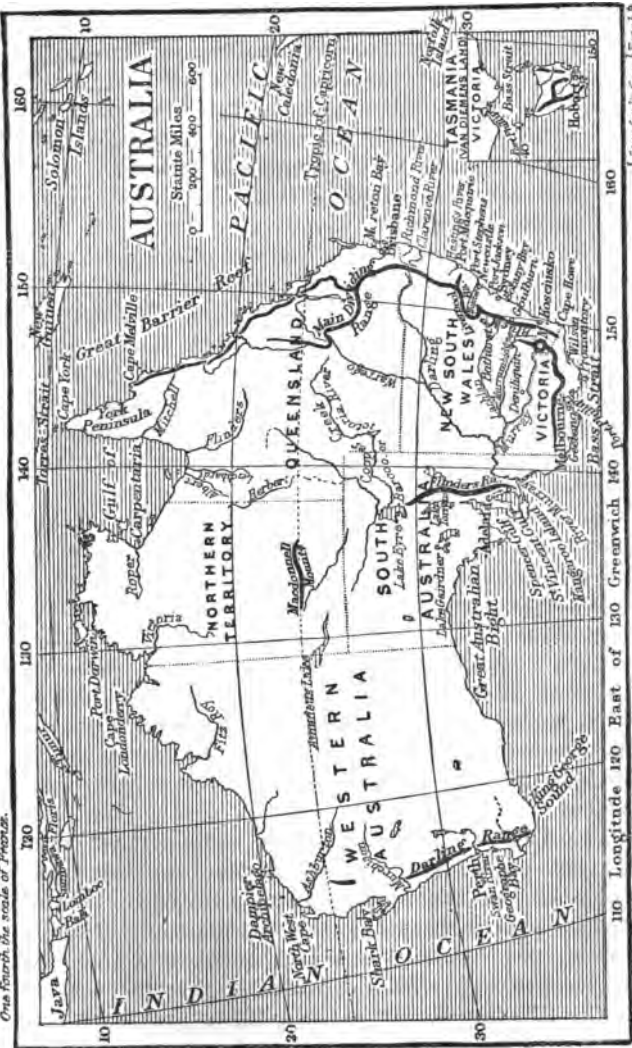
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## AUSTRALIA.

WHEN rumours of its existence first came to be noised abroad, Australia was not like America ; as far as its native products went, it was a barren land enough ; and here were no rivers like inland seas, and no gigantic mountains, capped with snow, and yet emitting flame ; none of the marvels of the Western continent. When, therefore, the "Great South Land" was discovered, after many conjectures and much patient search, the event made little stir in the world. One Torres, a Spaniard, who passed through the strait that bears his name in the year 1606, was the first to give any reliable account of the new land. Then, sundry Dutch seamen touched from time to time upon various points of the coast. Tasman discovered Tasmania, or Van Diemen's Land. In 1770, Captain Cook traced the whole of the eastern coast from Cape Howe to Cape York, taking formal possession of the whole in the name of his sovereign, King George III. of Great Britain and Ireland. Twenty years later, the colony of New South Wales was established.

The map shows that the configuration of Australia is not unlike that of Africa—the other Great South Land: a mountain chain runs parallel with the east coast, that is, in a north and south direction ; and, reaching out from these mountains to the sea, is a coast plain, varying in width from 30 to 100 miles. This narrow strip of coast plain is by far the most flourishing part of the vast continent of Australia.

One fourth the scale of *Fraser*.



Standard Geog. Atlas

The eastern mountains form one long range, reaching from Cape Wilson to Cape York, and called the Dividing Range; but the southern portion of the chain is known as the Australian Alps, with Mount Kosciusko (6500 feet); and further north, the beautiful purple-blue of the mountain haze has obtained for the range the name of the Blue Mountains.

The Blue Mountains afford the most picturesque mountain scenery of Australia, though their highest point, Mount York, is not much more than half the height of Kosciusko. But here are chasms and precipices and rugged passes, and steep walls of naked rock, 2000 feet high. To the north of the Blue Mountains is the Liverpool range: the mountains which stretch away from these to the northern point are but imperfectly known.

No doubt the long ridge of the Dividing Range presented obstacles to the early settlers; but that is not the only reason why the strip of eastern coast-land is thickly settled, out of all proportion with the rest of the continent: it is a well-watered, undulating, pleasant country; many streams descend from the hills—the Brisbane, Richmond, Clarence, Hastings, &c.; and as fresh water, whether in the form of lakes or rivers, is the great want of Australia, it is no wonder that this fertile country should have been the first to attract the settler.

The first English settlements were formed upon the east coast; but, in 1813, a pass was discovered across the Blue Mountains, and then the real wealth of Australia disclosed itself,—the vast grass pastures, the “sheep runs,” which stretch away endlessly to the west.

The discovery that the whole of the inland slope of the Dividing Range yields gold, in greater or less

abundance, drew diggers hither from every corner of the earth, thus spreading the population westward, beyond the mountains. The Australian Alps and the hilly country to the west afford the richest diggings. Australia possesses other mineral treasures which may outlast its gold; to the east of Spencer Gulf are the richest copper mines in the world; lead is found in the same district; while coal and iron, tin, marbles, and building-stones have been found in various parts of the continent.

The richness of the gold deposits at the foot of the Australian Alps has changed the character of New South Wales from that of a thinly-peopled pastoral country to one of the most rising and flourishing colonies that has sprung from the Anglo-Saxon race. As early as 1844, Sir R. Murchison predicted that Australia, from the similarity in direction of its mountain chains, and of its rocks, with those of the Ural, would become one day a gold-producing country, but no one could have foreseen its excessive richness. Specimens were occasionally brought to Sydney by shepherds and labouring men, and as soon as it was known that gold was to be found in large quantities, multitudes flocked to Australia from every quarter, and to such an extent has the search been carried, that in the year 1852, Victoria yielded gold to the value of 8½ million pounds sterling, and New South Wales, 2½ million pounds; while in 1857, the total yield amounted to 14 million pounds. Since then, however, the supply has greatly declined. Large masses, "nuggets," have frequently been found, but generally the gold is met with in grains.

Some of the principal gold fields in Victoria are in the Ballarat district, west of Melbourne.

"The hills begin to slope gradually towards Ballarat. The forest trees are loftier and denser, but the surface soil is not so richly grassed. Within a mile and a half of Golden Point, the tents begin to peer through the trees.

"The bank of the creek is lined with cradles, in which are rocked, not babies by any means, but masses of clay, rocked and shaken about in water until every grain of gold is worked out of them. The washers are in full operation. We descend, spring over a dam, and are among the workmen. 'Rock, rock, rock! swish, swash, swish!' such is the universal sound. Higher up the hill's crest and along its sides are the tents, thickly clustered and pitched, and far beyond, the lofty white-barked trees form a background. This is Ballarat as it was in the days of the early diggers.

"You meet men you have not seen for years. 'Ah, old friend! hardly knew you; how are you getting on? 'Did nothing for a week; tried six holes and found no gold. But now we have reached the blue clay. It is a capital hole; come and see it.'

"Imagine a gigantic honeycomb, in which the cells are eight feet wide and twenty feet or so deep, with a very thin partition between them. To follow a friend, and to find a hole in the very midst is dangerous work. The miners move nimbly about, with barrow, pick, and bag, swarming along the narrow ledges, while, below, others are picking, shovelling, and heating the stove. 'No danger, sir. Our bank is supported by quartz, but there was a man killed yesterday, three holes off. We've got to the gold at last; made an ounce yesterday.'"

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## Part II.

As we have said, the want of rivers is the great defect of Australian geography. There is but one *great* river in the whole of Australia—the Murray, with its tributaries the Darling, Lachlan, and Murrumbidgee; and even the Murray, in its course through the dry plains, fails altogether in some seasons, and becomes a chain of stagnant pools. Its large tributaries have, however, an unfailing flow.

Great pains have been taken to improve the navigation of the Murray, which now extends to the different gold-bearing districts and unites the traffic of the three greatest Australian colonies—New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland. From Spencer Gulf which has three excellent harbours, one of which could contain the whole British navy, the Murray has been navigated for 2650 miles, and it is estimated that over 1000 more may be added by the improved navigation of three of its tributaries. In consequence of this increased water-carriage, many new towns have been built, some of them of considerable size. There is much grass land in this district.

As in all warm latitudes, the rivers of Australia are flooded in the winter, and dwindle in the summer. The smaller streams, called “creeks” in Australia, become wholly dried up during the heat, or else are converted into a chain of ponds. And a piteous sight it is to see the great road over the mountains which leads from the interior to Sydney, strewed with the whitened bones of draught oxen that have perished of thirst by the way.

The coast rivers of Eastern Australia are many of them fine streams; but the only considerable rivers of



the continent which carry water to the sea throughout the year are those which fall into the Gulf of Carpentaria. Many of the rivers never reach the sea, but flow inland, and are lost in salt marshes.

As the continent of Australia has so few large rivers, it was concluded that no very high land existed in the interior, even before these inland regions were explored. The eastern half is now pretty well known, and it has been found to consist of a vast shallow basin, the inland rivers, with the exception of the Murray and its tributaries, losing themselves in a chain of salt lakes. Cooper Creek, otherwise known as the Barcoo, or Victoria river, is the largest of these streams. Of the salt lakes, the most remarkable group lies to the north of Spencer Gulf,—lakes Eyre, Torrens, and Gairdner. Lake Amadeus, more recently discovered in the very heart of Australia, is a great salt marsh like these. The western half of Australia is supposed to be such another shallow basin as the eastern.

Such knowledge as we have of the interior of Australia has been obtained at the sacrifice of noble lives. The first of these brave and intelligent travellers was Captain Sturt, who explored the Murray, and its tributary the Darling; and, later, penetrated half-way across the continent until he came to the barren tract called the Great Stony Desert. Dr. Leichhardt followed, and crossed the continent; and, three years later, he set out to cross it from east to west, but he never returned; and after another three years, a Mr. Gregory went in search of him; but all he found were the remains of one of his camps, and his initials carved on a tree. Later, Burke and his party succeeded in crossing the continent, but only one of the four returned to tell the tale.

The discoveries of these explorers prove that the interior of Australia is by no means so barren as is sometimes supposed. Burke says, in a letter written shortly before his death:—"We have discovered a practicable route to Carpentaria. There is some good country between this and the Stony Desert. From there to the tropic the country is dry and stony. Between the tropic and Carpentaria, a considerable portion is rangy, but it is well watered and richly grassed." In later days, it has become a common feat enough to cross the continent, but the danger and glory of the undertaking belong to the early explorers.

The climate of Australia, tropical and subtropical, is like that of Northern Africa; indeed, the situation of the continent across the southern tropic, is like that of Africa across the northern one. The slopes of the eastern mountain ranges face the winds from the Pacific, and condense the moisture they bring from the ocean and pour down in rivers upon the coast plains—by far the most fertile parts of the continent. The whole of the interior region may be said to be almost rainless. Thus, entering Australia from the Pacific side, we should pass from the cultivated fields and rich grass plains of the eastern hill slopes and plateaus into the dreary steppes of the interior, where the soil is bare, often incrustated with salt and covered with thickets and scrub, often quite impenetrable. In the Australian spring-time, the interior plains look fresh, but in summer they become dreary wastes; the "creeks" dry up, and men and animals scour the plains in search of pools of brackish water.

The trees and shrubs which are found in Australia are almost all evergreens, or rather, ever greys, so that

the forests are dull and sombre enough, and there is little change of colouring throughout the year. The characteristic tree is the eucalyptus, or gum tree, which becomes a huge tree on the eastern plains, and of which there are a hundred different varieties.

Hot as the climate of Australia is as compared with that of England, it is exceedingly delightful and healthful. On account of the extreme dryness of the atmosphere, the heat is never oppressive, and out-of-door work can usually be carried on with pleasure all the year through.

The rains of Australia—where there are rains—are periodical, falling in the Australian winter, that is between June and September. Then the rain comes down in sheets, not in showers, making deep, strong rivers of the creeks, flooding the fields, and making rivers of the highways of the towns. But most distressing droughts sometimes occur in New South Wales, when not a drop of rain falls for months, and the cattle perish by hundreds.

Instances have even occurred of no rain falling for two or three years at a time, and these periodical droughts are most trying to the great sheep and cattle breeders, or *squatters*, of the interior. South Australia and Victoria are much better off in the matter of regular rains. The Australian seasons take place at exactly the opposite periods of the year to our own, the Australian Christmas occurring in the intensest heat of summer, and being a gay, open-air festival of flowers and fruits.

We have spoken of the eucalyptus; that and the acacia are the characteristic trees of Australia. The Australian cedar yields a beautiful wood, not unlike Spanish mahogany. The sombre forests are strangely

lighted up by birds of the most beautiful plumage,—parrots, parroquets, cockatoos, lovely little honey-suckers, lories, and many others. Ferns grow to an enormous size here, and there are stinging nettles forty feet high, and reeds nearly as tall. The native grasses are spread over boundless tracts of the interior. But Australian grass does not form a close turf covering the soil like that of an English meadow, but grows in separate tufts, showing the earth between: therefore, a space of five acres is required for the feed of a single sheep; and the sheep and cattle runs of the great squatters cover enormous tracts of country, sometimes as much as 70,000 acres.

With a few trifling exceptions, there are no native food plants in Australia—none that could be useful to any great extent in supporting life. And, for this reason perhaps, the aborigines of Australia, belonging to the group of tribes called the Oceanic Negroes, rank lowest of all in the human family. They wear no clothes (except in the neighbourhood of white settlements, where they are compelled to wear a blanket), make themselves no habitations, and their food is of the most disgusting description—whatever they can pick up—grubs, snails, worms, lizards; but they are extremely active and clever in hunting the kangaroo and opossum, the characteristic animals of Australia. Almost all the mammals of the continent belong to the marsupial type, that is, they are furnished with a sort of natural pouch in which to carry their young.

The “black fellows” of Australia have resisted all efforts to civilise them; and probably at the present time they do not number more than 55,000.

The greater part of the population are descendants of emigrants from the British Isles. There are many

Chinese colonists who are excellent as labourers, gardeners, and domestic servants.

If Australia has no native food plants, all those of Europe, and many belonging to the tropics, flourish here in wonderful abundance; every sort of corn plant, delicious fruits—the fig, orange, olive, mulberry, peach; the vine, the tea-plant, cotton, and tobacco, have been cultivated with much success.

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#### NEW SOUTH WALES.

This colony, which is about five times the size of England and Wales, includes the south-eastern region of Australia, the river Murray marking the boundary between it and Victoria.

It is an exceedingly flourishing and prosperous colony, and promises, one day, to be a great country: promises, we say, because its resources are far from fully developed, and its population is less on the average than three persons to the square mile.

The climate is remarkably healthy; hot, as compared with England; but the atmosphere is so pure and dry, that the settler becomes accustomed to the heat, and finds that, instead of producing lassitude, it fits him for the most vigorous enjoyment of life.

A long sea-board with many excellent harbours—as, Botany Bay, Port Jackson, Port Stephen, Port Macquarie—gives every facility for commerce; and so rich and abundant is the produce of the country, that, already, the commerce of Sydney extends to all parts of the world; wool, gold, coal, tallow, copper, and grain, are sent out in great quantities.

The Liverpool range and the Blue Mountains divide the colony into two parts. On the one side is the coast-plain, watered by abundant streams, and extremely fertile. This is the agricultural region, where European grains and fruits are cultivated in abundance. Besides the finest wheat—two crops in a year in certain districts—almost every vegetable raised at home for Covent Garden Market grows here with great luxuriance, besides many others foreign to our English soil. And then the orchards and orangeries! In the neighbourhood of Port Jackson—the magnificent natural harbour on which Sydney is built—you may see the very shores lined with groves of orange trees laden with the delicious fruit. A single settler may have a yield of twenty thousand dozen of oranges from his plantation in one season. The orange trees are planted in long double rows, with an avenue between; and all the way down, you may see the great golden fruit gleaming amongst the dark green leaves. Peaches, too, are so abundant, that “you can’t eat them, and can’t sell them, and can’t give them away,” and they are carried off in bucketfuls to feed the pigs; and figs and plums, apricots and nectarines, and a dozen other delicious fruits grow in the same lavish abundance.

The grass plains of the inland slope, called the “Riverina,” are divided off into the vast sheep runs of New South Wales: and here are grown the “Botany wools,” which the British manufacturer chooses in preference to most other kinds, for their fineness and silky softness. Sheep-farming is the principal employment of the people; the periodical droughts, occurring at intervals of ten or twelve years, being less unfavourable to sheep-rearing than to agriculture. An enormous quantity of wool is exported to England every year.

Between the source of the rivers Murray and Murrumbidgee and between the New England and the Liverpool ranges, are the most productive gold mines, but the precious metal is found throughout the region traversed by the mountains. Silver, copper, lead, and iron are also widely distributed in the mountain region ; the chief coal-fields are in the valley of the river Hunter, one of the finest districts of the colony.

Sydney, the Australian metropolis, is one of the most English towns in the world: good broad streets, fine shops, handsome public buildings, and the sights and sounds of London or Liverpool make the emigrant doubt whether he is not still in his native country, until "an occasional orange tree in full bloom or fruit, in the back yard of some of the older cottages, or a flock of little green parrots, whistling as they alight for a moment on a house-top," remind him that the wide ocean is between him and old England. George Street, the principal thoroughfare of Sydney, is a very fine street indeed, while, behind it, is "the Rocks," such another neighbourhood of evil fame as St. Giles's. Sydney has its university, and is, in all respects, a fine English town.

Bathurst, the spot where gold was first found in Australia, Paramatta, Newcastle, the great coal port at the mouth of the Hunter, Goulburn, the chief place in the southern gold-mining district, and Deniliquin, the centre of the pastoral district of the "Riverina," are the other most important towns.

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## VICTORIA.

Victoria, which may be compared to Great Britain in size, occupies the south-eastern corner of the continent. The colony takes the first place as a gold-bearing region, the principal gold-fields lying along the ridge which forms the water-parting between the rivers flowing into the Murray and those flowing into the ocean. The richest district is at the base of Mount Alexander ; and Ballarat, a little further to the south, is also a rich gold-bearing region.

No part of Australia is so pleasantly diversified as Victoria. A hilly, undulating, well-watered country fills up nearly the whole province,—a park-like and lovely succession of hill and dale, woodland and prairie. Wheat, maize, and potatoes, fruits and table vegetables, are largely grown, and flourish on a fertile soil, and in a climate mild, on the whole, as that of the Mediterranean coasts, though subject to sudden changes from heat to cold.

But sheep-farming is the great industry of Victoria ; everywhere are pastures of the richest grass, and the wealthy squatters have occupied more than three-fourths of the province in great sheep and cattle runs. Indeed, Port Phillip exports more wool annually than the older and larger colony of New South Wales.

The southern coast of Victoria is fringed with inlets and salt lagoons ; and, of these, Port Phillip is the most important and the most beautiful opening. You enter through a narrow passage between two "heads" into what looks like an immense lake, surrounded by the loveliest landscape,—wooded hills, and soft, undulating plains. An arm of the bay forms the harbour of Geelong,



with the seaport town of the same name which rivals Melbourne itself in its foreign trade.

Melbourne, which has become the largest city of Australia, stands near the head of Port Phillip. It is a handsome town, with straight, wide streets, and noble public buildings. Ballarat, in the midst of one of the first discovered gold-fields, is the largest interior town.

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#### QUEENSLAND.

This colony, which is about eight times the size of Great Britain, occupies the whole of the north-east of the continent.

Here, as in New South Wales, the "Dividing Range" breaks the country into a short slope towards the coast, and a long inland slope. The climate, as we might expect, is tropical. It is hot and moist on the shores of the Pacific, and the swampy ground produces cotton, finer than the sea-island cotton of America, sugar, indigo, and the fruits of the tropics. The higher grounds of the seaward slope yield two crops of the finest wheat in the year. Up in the hill region are wide "downs," upon which innumerable sheep are fed; and here, on the highlands, the climate is more temperate. The highlands of the interior are well suited for sheep-farming, but the long inland slope passes by degrees into the dry, barren steppes of Central Australia, where the rivers dry up in the summer heats, leaving only stagnant pools, and rain is hardly known. The grasses are here completely destroyed and swept away by the hot summer winds.

The mineral wealth of Queensland is very great.

There are valuable gold-fields in the north, and copper, tin, and iron are widely distributed. The capital of the colony is the flourishing town of Brisbane, on the river of the same name, close to the fine inlet of Moreton Bay. It has a large trade in tinned meats, as well as its more important trades in wool, cotton, and timber. The Moreton Bay pine affords valuable timber.

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## SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

This colony has a somewhat misleading name, for, at the present time, it embraces the middle division of the continent, from the great Australian Bight in the south, to the Gulf of Carpentaria on the north. A good deal of this vast region remains unexplored, and there is little hope that, when fully known, the unexplored districts will yield habitable lands for the settler. There are wide tracts of scrub, or brushwood, and stony and sandy desert tracts, without any vegetation at all; but, allowing for all this waste, there are still wide districts of rich grass lands, and plains well suited for agriculture.

The most valuable part of the colony lies along the Flinders range of mountains, which extend from the Spencer Gulf towards Lake Torrens. Along the slopes of these hills, capital crops of wheat are raised, and fruits of all European sorts, especially the vine, grow very freely. Beyond the hills, sheep runs stretch far into the interior, and sheep and cattle rearing is one of the chief employments of the settlers. The Flinders range is rich in copper, which is the principal export of the colony, the Burra Burra mines being the

richest: gold, silver, iron, tin, quicksilver, and various kinds of precious stones are among the minerals of this region.

"The long line of telegraph which has been carried all across South Australia leads through interchanging grass land, bush, salt lagoons, and sandy desert, over the Macdonnell range of hills, in the centre of the continent, to the northern territory of the colony, a region which is yet quite undeveloped, but which seems fit for the cultivation of all tropical products."

South Australia is the driest and the dustiest of the colonies, owing to the want of running water; but in many parts of the country there is enough rain for the needs of the farmers, and this is the most agricultural of the Australian colonies. A great deal of excellent wheat is grown and exported.

Adelaide, the capital, is a handsome city, well laid out, with straight, wide streets and fine public buildings.

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#### WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

This is the poorest and least important of the Australian colonies. As in the east, hill ranges extend in a north and south direction at some distance from the coast: but the soil of this coast plain is generally poor and barren, and the rivers, which are flooded during the heavy rains, become dry water-courses during the summer heats.

This is a vast region, including the whole of Australia west of the 129th meridian, an area eleven times as great as that of Britain. Little, however, is yet known of this region beyond its coast-line, and along one or

two tracks of explorers who have crossed the barren wastes which fill most of the interior.

The most important district occupied by colonists lies along the outer slope of the hills to the south-west. But the colony is not prosperous, partly on account of its natural disadvantages, partly because it was made a settlement for convicts from Britain after the other colonies ceased to receive them.

The chief town is Perth.

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#### TASMANIA.

Tasmania, or Van Diemen's Land, is an island somewhat smaller than Ireland, lying off the south-east point of Australia.

Its climate is something like that of England, except that the summer heat is sometimes greater; and where the island is cultivated, its hedges, fields, and orchards beside the villages remind one of England. Tasmania is a land of hill and dale, stern and mountainous towards the centre: much of it is under forest, the myrtle wood and blue gum tree covering vast tracts, while elegant tree ferns fill the glens.

The inhabitants are nearly all of British origin, and are chiefly engaged in agriculture, the two most important trading towns exporting wool, timber, hops, wheat, oil, and fruit. Tasmania abounds in valuable minerals, iron, tin, and coal.

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### Questions on the Map of Australia.

1. Within what oceans does Australia lie? State from the scale its greatest length and greatest breadth. Within what parallels, south latitude, does it lie? Which of the colonies fall partly within the tropics? Which has the warmer climate,—North, or South Australia?

2. What is the most northerly point? What great opening breaks into the north? What name is given to the enormous coral reefs off the north-west coast? What name does the great northern bend of the south coast bear? Name three or four important openings in the south coast. The south-easterly cape.

3. Australia has but one great river,—name it. What part of the continent does the Murray drain? Where do the river and its tributaries take their rise? Name its chief tributary. Two other important tributaries. Which is the best watered portion of Australia? How do you account for this? In what direction do the eastern mountains (the dividing range) run? By what different names are they known, proceeding from the south to the north? Name two or three of the longest rivers of the eastern coast-plain.

4. Several considerable rivers flow into the Gulf of Carpentaria,—name three of the largest. What becomes of the inland rivers? Name the most considerable of these. What is indicated by the broken lines which represent these rivers? Name any of the lakes which receive the inland drainage.

5. Describe the situation of any high lands besides the Dividing range. Between what points is the telegraph line (which crosses Australia from north to south) carried?

6. The boundaries of New South Wales. The greatest length and breadth of the colony. Its situation. Its mountains and their position. One or two highest summits. Its rivers (a) flowing into the Pacific; (b) flowing inland. Its chief town. Three or four other notable towns of the colony. Any mines.

7. The situation of Victoria. Its boundaries. Its highlands. What of its rivers—considerable or otherwise? Do they join the Murray, or fall into the sea? Describe the coast. Its greatest inlet (port). Two towns on this inlet. One or two other towns in the colony. Any mines. Its greatest length and breadth. Compare it with the other colonies as regards size.

8. Describe the situation of Queensland. What proportion of

this vast country is within the tropics? Part of the tropical region is peninsular,—name the peninsula. The best watered districts of Queensland. Upon what streams does the interior depend for its water supply? Name three or four of the principal towns of the colony. Mines. Its greatest length and breadth.

9. Describe the situation of South Australia? Why is the name of this colony misleading? Its boundaries. Highlands. Rivers. Lakes. Great openings of coast. Island off coast. Two or three towns. Any mines.

10. What proportion of the continent is included in West Australia? Compare this division with Eastern Australia as to highlands, rivers, and inhabited towns. One or two towns of West Australia.

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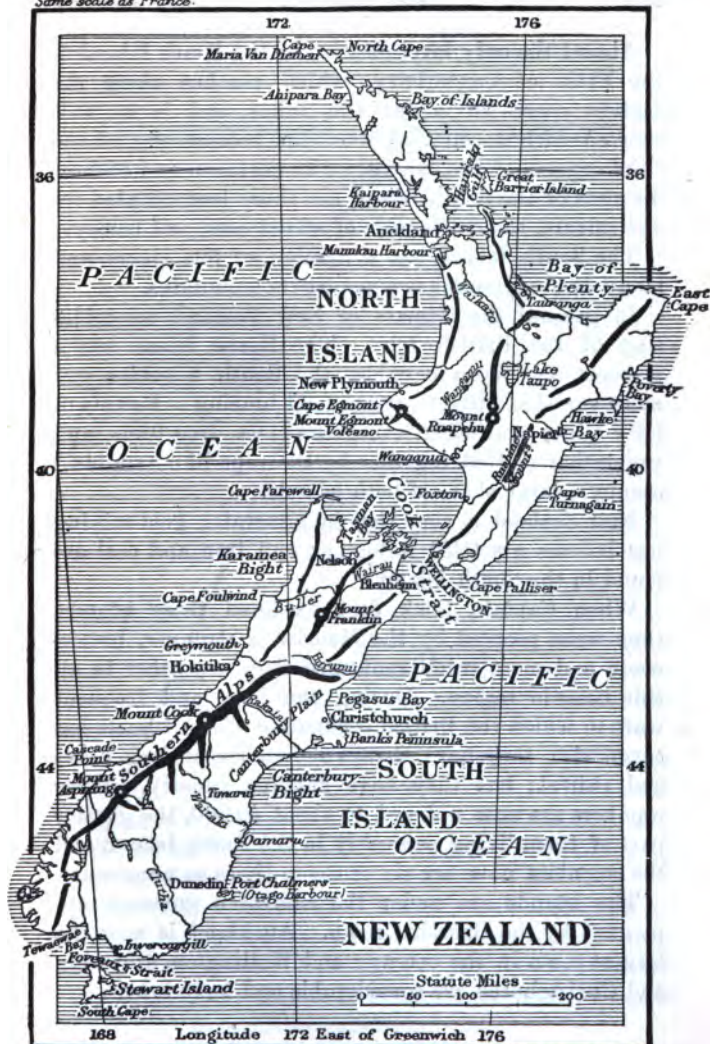
## NEW ZEALAND.

A LINE drawn from England through the centre of the globe would come out near the islands of New Zealand, which are, therefore, nearly at the antipodes of our islands of Britain. They lie at a distance of about 1200 miles south-east of the mainland of Australia. The group consists of two large islands, a northern and a southern, and of several smaller ones, of which Stewart Island, to the south, is the most important. The extent of the islands together is somewhat less than that of the United Kingdom.

The North Island is less compact than the southern, and runs out in long peninsulas. Nor is it so elevated as South Island, though it contains high summits. In the centre of the island rises a volcanic group, the highest summits of which are near 1000 feet high, and amongst these are many hot-water lakes and geysers, far surpassing those of Iceland in size. It has a large central lake, Taupo, 36 miles long.

The South Island, separated from the northern by Cook Strait, is almost covered by the high range called the Southern Alps, which rises to its greatest height on the western side of the island, forming high-walled fiords on the western coast. The highest point among the many peaks of this magnificent glacier and snow-clad range is Mount Cook, 13,200 feet high, near the centre of the chain. The Tasman glacier, depending from Mount Cook, is larger than any of those found in the Swiss Alps.

Same scale as France.



Sanford's Geog. Estab.



Almost the only level district in the South Island is the Plain of Canterbury, which reaches along the eastern coast for about 100 miles, and is so well stocked with sheep that wool has become one of the chief exports of the colony. The northern and eastern districts of the South Island are those best adapted for agriculture, the cultivation of wheat, oats, and barley.

The South Island has a number of fine rivers, and many deep alpine lakes amongst its mountains.

In general the climate of New Zealand resembles that of the British Isles. The North Island has a warmer and more equable, the South a cooler and more variable, climate, rough and bracing. Forests of lofty pines and other evergreen trees, tree ferns, and vegetation matted together by the rope-like "smilax," occupy a large share of both islands.

New Zealand is very rich in minerals; gold-mining has become a settled industry: and iron and coal are found in the South Island.

When Captain Cook first explored these islands, they were peopled by the Maories, a stronger, better-made and more intelligent race than any other in all this oceanic region. During the long and frequent wars to which the British occupation of the islands has given rise, they have always shown themselves brave and skilful: but they have suffered greatly. Their numbers are now reduced to about 40,000, the greater part of them living peaceably in the North Island, and the colonists, now, are six or seven times as numerous.

The islands are under the rule of a governor appointed by the British Crown. Auckland is now the largest town in the colony; and Wellington, Dunedin, and Christchurch are considerable and busy towns.

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## CAUSES WHICH AFFECT CLIMATE.

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### Lesson I.—Sunshine.

THE amount of heat which a given place receives depends chiefly upon how high in the sky the sun is at noon above that place. We know how much warmer it is in the middle of a summer's day than it is in the early morning or evening: at noon the sun is high in the heavens, and his rays fall pretty directly upon the earth even in the somewhat cold latitude of Britain: in the morning and evening the sun is low in the sky, and his rays travel in a very oblique, or sloping, line to the spot on which you stand.

Towards the poles the sunshine never falls otherwise than in the oblique and less heating way at any part of the day. The sun never rises very high in the sky, and, for a great part of the year, is never visible at all. Polar sunshine is therefore, at the best, in its heating effects very like morning and evening sunshine elsewhere.

In the tropical regions of the earth the case is very different. There is no day in the year when the sun is not exactly overhead at some point within the tropics, either at the equator itself, or at some point north or south of it.

Therefore, all this middle region of the earth is warmed by vertical or by nearly vertical rays: rays which strike on the earth's surface with such tremendous heat that a European dare hardly expose himself to the noontide sunshine.

In England we never have the sun directly overhead: he gets higher in the sky at noon in our summer than during any other part of the year. But even then, he never reaches the *zenith*, that is, the point immediately above the observer's head: on a bright June day he will climb about two-thirds of the distance from the horizon towards the zenith, and then go down towards the west: so that even in our warmest summer weather the heat-rays which reach us come in a more or less oblique direction.

The surface of the earth is divided, roughly, into five great *zones*, or climate-belts. The broad belt within the tropics, where the sun is exactly overhead at some point all the year round, is the *torrid*, or burning zone—a name which sufficiently indicates its character.

You remember that because the earth is a sphere the sun lights up exactly half of its surface at one time. When the sun is resting upon the northern tropic, his rays not only reach the north pole, but they fall beyond the pole exactly  $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ , so that the whole of the Arctic Circle is within the light. When this is the case, the sun's rays cannot reach the south pole, for, if they did so, more than half of the sphere would be lighted up at once, which is impossible.

Therefore, the sun's light only reaches as far south as the Antarctic Circle, and the regions round the south pole have a long winter night, while those round the north pole have a long summer day. But in both these regions frost reigns supreme all the year round, for, as we have said, the sun is low in the sky, and only very oblique heat-rays fall on the frost-bound earth. These Polar regions form the two *Arctic* or frozen zones.

The two wide *Temperate* zones between these two

extreme belts do not require any special notice. You will understand that the further we go north or south, from either tropic, the more oblique must be the direction of the heat-rays which fall upon the earth, and, therefore, the less of the sun's warmth must they bear ; and this will explain the various subdivisions of the great zones—sub-tropical (just without the tropics), warm-temperate, cold-temperate, &c.

### Lesson II.—Air and Sunshine.

It must not be supposed that the earth wheels through space naked as the face of a sea-washed cliff: on the contrary, she is entirely enveloped in a robe, soft, clinging, and marvellously elastic. As she moves, whether upon her daily rotation, or her annual journey round the sun, this transparent garment clings to her, and shares in her motions : so closely does it cling that never a yard of the whole surface of the earth is ever by any chance uncovered : and yet though it never removes from any part of the earth, but revolves with the sphere, this wondrous tissue—if we may call it so—has a thousand motions of its own, independent of those of the earth which it enwraps.

This transparent, translucent robe, which the eye of man is not keen enough to see, nor his touch fine enough to perceive, though it is the very condition of life to him and all living things, is the *Atmosphere*, which lies in soft folds above the surface of the earth for a height of fifty, or a hundred, or two hundred miles—a voluminous wrapping, you see, for so large a body. And it is within the folds of this soft mantle that man and all living things breathe and grow. Lift the atmosphere off, say, twenty square yards of the earth's

surface, and, suddenly, all life in man, plant, and moving thing languishes,—goes out: but, happily, it is not within human power to try such an experiment.

Heat passes through the air almost as freely as does light: the heat-rays which leave the sun come to us without losing any considerable portion of their warming power. But this is true only in so far as the air is pure and dry; moist air, holding clouds, or even invisible vapour, behaves very differently.

The moisture present in the atmosphere has most important uses, but we will not speak of these now: the point to be noticed here is, the astonishing power that water has, even when it is in the form of vapour, of taking heat into itself without appearing to get much the warmer.

But with dry air, as we have said, the case is very different: the heat-rays fall to the ground having lost little by the way. Now, roughly speaking, heat can only warm by passing into the object which is warmed; and if heat-rays pass through the atmosphere without losing their heat, it is plain that the air cannot be warmed by the heat on its way down from the sun. Yet the air certainly becomes warm: who does not know the difference between the warm summer airs and the chill blasts of February?

This is what happens. The August sun is shining on a paved square: the stones become hot, quite burning hot: the air resting on these stones becomes heated: heated air is lighter than cold air: light bodies—feathers, and motes, and air bladders, for example—rise; the warm light air rises, and the nearest cold air rushes in to take its place: this goes on all through “the heat of the day,” so that there comes to be a steady stream of hot air rising up from

the ground, and as steady a stream of the nearest cold air rushing in to fill its place. This is, broadly speaking, how the air is warmed.

All substances upon which the sunshine falls have not an equal power of warming themselves on the surface with the heat they receive: you know that a grass plot would be cool and pleasant to the feet when a paved square would be quite painful to walk upon. Thus again, the sun falls in some places upon large stretches of land, and in others upon large stretches of water. We noticed what power the moisture in the atmosphere has to absorb heat; the same thing is true of the ocean waters. The sunshine has far more power to heat the surface of the solid land than that of the liquid water. Therefore the surface of the sea never becomes so heated under a noon-day sun as the surface of the land.

### Lesson III.—Water and Sunshine.

The power of water to absorb and dispose of a great deal of heat is very remarkable. With this thought in your mind, look at the map of the world; look at the wide stretch of ocean waters round the hottest regions of the earth, where the rays of the sun fall vertically; and think what a waste of precious heat upon the insensible ocean,—heat that might have ripened untold heaps of corn and fruit for the food of men!

We are jumping to rash conclusions; the bounds of the sea have been most wisely and benevolently set in this regard as in all others. The ocean does not *waste* the floods of heat which pour down into its bosom; it is true, it is slow to warm itself with the sunshine, but then, it *saves it up*. The wide waste of waters about the

equator is nothing more nor less than a savings bank, a reservoir, where is laid up the heat of the tropics.

And what for? Slowly as the ocean has taken in its store of heat, even so slowly does it give it out again; not in the hot regions where additional heat is not wanted, but up in our colder northern latitudes, for example; the very heat which fell upon the broad bosom of the tropical ocean, that heat it is which keeps the Thames from being frozen through the whole of every winter.

This is the marvellous, beautiful way in which this grand commerce of nature is carried on:—The waters of the equator do become heated in time, though while the land surfaces of these regions are sometimes heated by sunshine to a temperature of  $140^{\circ}$ , that of the ocean never exceeds  $85^{\circ}$ . Water, when heated, behaves exactly as heated air does; that is, its tendency is to become light, and flow off, while colder water flows in to take the place of the warm. For this reason various rivers of warm water flow off from the equatorial regions of the ocean, giving off their own heat into the air resting upon the cold seas through which they flow.

The direction of these currents is a good deal affected by the position of the nearest masses of land as well as by the motion of the earth, so that it hardly ever happens that the Equatorial Currents and their numerous branches flow due north or south.

The most remarkable instance of such a stream of hot water from the tropics warming the cold climes of the north is the well-known Gulf Stream. The great equatorial current flows off westward until it finds itself shut in within the narrow-mouthed Gulf of Mexico. The heat of the water increases while it simmers there under a tropical sun; and at last, warmth

is carried up into the higher latitudes of the Atlantic by a strong current issuing from the Gulf of Mexico, and then passing along the coasts of the United States of America, and obliquely across the Atlantic Ocean far on to the north-western shores of Europe, and even to the entrance of the Arctic Sea.

Of course, as it travels northward, this warm stream becomes more and more cooled because it is constantly giving off heat; while the air which rests upon it receives all the warmth which it gives out; and this warmth finds its way to the land in the shape of warm soft sea-breezes to temper the winter cold of these high latitudes.

The Gulf Stream is only one instance of a warm ocean-current blessing with soft and genial airs the coasts by which it passes. Generally speaking, the tendency of the tropical ocean-waters is to flow off in streams towards the colder latitudes, north and south, carrying warmth and fertility in their course.

But it is not by means of its warm currents alone that the ocean tempers the climate of the land masses: all much-indented, ocean-washed lands enjoy what is called an *insular* climate; that is, they have a cooler summer and a warmer winter than inland regions in the same latitude. When a country is too far inland for its climate to be tempered by the sea, it is said to have a *continental* climate, marked by extremes of heat in the summer, and of cold in the winter.

#### Lesson IV.—Air in Motion.

The wind blows because the air resting on a certain spot has become heated, has therefore expanded, and risen while the nearest cold air rushes in to take its place. The rush of the cold air is *wind*.



But the wind is for ever changing. "Fickle as the wind," is the worst that can be said of the most changeable person. Now, an east wind causes you to shiver; now, a genial south wind makes life delightful; and now, a west wind promises rain. But one thing can be said for the wind which cannot be said for fickle people: the wind never changes without cause.

We go to the sea-side for the sake of the health-giving "sea-breezes;" that is the winds which blow off the sea. But why should the wind blow off the sea? It is a hot August day in Brighton: the pavement is hot, the pebbles are hot; but the water is delightfully cool.

We have seen already that land warms up a great deal sooner than water; that water can take a great deal of heat into itself before it becomes warm to the touch. This accounts for the difference in warmth between the beach and the sea under the same hot sunshine.

What takes place now? The air resting on the land becomes hot and light, and rises, up, up, nobody knows how high. Cool air must come from somewhere to supply its place: the cool sea has not warmed the air resting on its surface, and that rushes in, a pleasant *sea-breeze*, to bring roses to the cheeks of the delicate children of the towns.

But, "lightly come, lightly go," is the rule with the land: the sun goes down; no more heat-rays fall upon the shore; the land has no power to keep the heat which it received in the day-time, so the heat flies off, rapidly, into space, and the surface of the land becomes cold in the evening. The air resting upon the cold ground is as cold as itself. The air resting on the sea is little cooler than it was in the day-time, and is,

therefore, a good deal warmer than the cold night air of the land. The consequence is that the cold land-air pushes out to sea driving the warm sea-air out of its way, up into space ; and so, at night, there is a *land-breeze* when the cool wind blows sea-ward, off the land. Notice that it is the cool, and, therefore, heavy, air which moves in each case.

In hot countries, both land and sea breezes blow with far greater force than they do with us, simply because, the more heated the land becomes, the more rapidly does the hot air rise from its surface, and then the cool sea-air comes in with a sudden rush to take its place, and there is a strong wind, instead of a gentle breeze.

In some parts of the earth, the land gets so thoroughly heated by the summer sun, that by day and by night, the air over the land is warmer than that over the sea ; and so the breeze goes on blowing strongly in from the sea by day and by night for several weeks at a time. This happens along the shores of the Indian Ocean throughout the summer months—if you can speak of summer in India—from April to October. In our summer, the sun shines vertically on these lands, which lie, for the most part, *north* of the equator. You remember that enormous table-lands stretch northwards from the Himalaya mountains ; all that wide stretch of plateau and desert becomes fiercely heated up under the torrid sunshine ; the heated air flies off, and a very strong wind from the sea rushes in to take its place.

From October to April, the direct rays of the sun fall on the Indian Ocean *south* of the equator. The more northern land receives much less sunshine, and has time to part with what it does receive by night, and very quickly does the heat fly off on those high uplands.

Therefore, at this season, a strong, steady wind blows from the land to the sea.

These periodic winds, which change regularly with the seasons of the year, are called *monsoons*—a word derived, probably, from an Arabic term meaning *seasons*. In the summer, the monsoon blows from the sea to the land, and in the winter, from the land to the sea; exactly as the land and sea breezes behave, only that the monsoons last, each for a season, and not for a day or a night.

We see now that the wind always moves from places where the air is heavy to places where the air is light, from cold places to warm places. But sit in a garden through a single summer's afternoon and you will find that you will have to change your position again and again to get out of the glare of the sunshine. One side of a street has the morning sun, the other side, the afternoon sun; one region of the earth has its greatest heat in December, another in August: on account of the two great motions of the earth, the sunshine is ever shifting, and wherever the sun blazes down with great heat, that is the spot towards which the wind blows.

But mountains may shut out the sunshine from the valleys below them, seas and lakes may take in the heat-rays without appearing to get much warmer, wide plains may parch and choke under the torrid rays, or heavy clouds may, for days together, hide the sun's face from the chilly land. Fifty reasons may cause a difference in the amount of heat which a given spot receives from the sun; and whatever affects the supply of heat affects also the direction of the wind.

“That the changing of the direction of the wind is due to the shifting of the situations of greatest heat, is plain from the fact that in the great open spaces of the

ocean, where there is no land to get heated up by the sunshine of the day and to get cooled by the scattering of the heat at night, the wind does not change, but blows always in the same direction from one day to another and all the year round."

These steady and unchanging winds are called the North-East and the South-East *Trade-winds*, on account of the great service they render to ships carrying goods across the seas.

We have no space for all that remains to be said about the winds: only bear in mind, that the wind blows because the air in a certain place has become warm and light, and therefore ascends, while cold air rushes in to take its place: that the wind "changes," because the sun is always shifting (or seems to be so) and, therefore, the hot places of the earth are always shifting: and that, the rule is that the wind blows from cold places to warm places to make up for the light heated air which has risen into space. The direction of the wind is greatly affected by the movement of the earth from west to east, but we cannot at present consider this important subject.

#### Lesson V.—The Wind and the Rain.

English people who live, not in the region of the steady Trade winds, but in that of the variable or frequently shifting winds, know well enough how much the winds have to do with the weather, and therefore, with the climate of a place; and, above all, we know, that upon the direction of the winds depends the quantity of rain a place receives during the year: in fact, it is the prevailing winds which decide whether a region is to be a fertile Eden or a dreary Sahara.

The sun draws up vast quantities of invisible vapour from the wide ocean, from the leafage of the forests, from the grass of the prairies, from the moist surface of the earth. We have spoken before of the atoms of which the air is composed, and of the spaces between these:—it is in these spaces, infinitely tiny empty houses, that the particles of vapour lodge; and, whichever way the wind blows, the vapour is carried along with it: in fact, the air may be filled with vapour as a sponge is charged with water.

The warmer the air is, the more vapour it can contain, because the air atoms themselves do not then lie so close together; so, in the hot mid-way ocean track, the air is laden with immense quantities of vapour, which the winds carry off to the cooler regions of the earth.

As it is wafted north or south the air becomes cooler, and, therefore, less able to hold vapour: it is saturated, and any further chill causes the vapour to appear as visible mist: a still further chill, and the mist becomes changed to round drops which are too heavy to be any longer sustained by the moving wind, and, therefore, fall to the earth in showers. This is the whole history of rain-making. Whenever warm, vapour-laden air arrives in cold places where it gets rapidly chilled, rain is sure to fall, simply because cold air is not able to hold as much vapour as warm air can support.

It does not at all matter how a chill is produced. It may be that a warm wind and a cold wind run against each other, so to speak, far up in the high regions of the atmosphere; the warm wind becomes immediately chilled, and drops its moisture. A warm wind from the tropics blows over colder regions of the earth; the warm wind is chilled, and rain is the consequence. Or

warm vapour-laden winds are pressed up the slopes of steep hills, and the vapour is turned into night-caps of mist which lodge on the lower mountains, shedding frequent showers on the low-lands; while on the highest summits the vapour is *congealed*—frozen, that is, and the night-cap of mist becomes a helmet of hard and glittering snow. Or again, rain occurs when a moist warm wind blows in from the ocean upon cold stretches of land.

As a general rule, vapour is raised in the greatest abundance in the tropical seas, and much of it is carried by the winds to the colder and temperate regions—there to be poured out as the blessed rain which waters the plains and feeds the rivers of the earth. But no *fixed* rule can be laid down: we have seen that the sunshine follows the rolling earth, and that the winds follow the ever-shifting sunshine; and now we must add that the rain follows the winds, or rather is carried by them; and so it comes to pass that the greater portion of the earth receives its share of fertilising showers as well as of life-giving sunshine.

But there is a very great difference in the quantity of rain which falls on different parts of the earth. "Most rain falls where hilly or elevated coasts are exposed to the inflow of warm ocean winds, and least where prevalent winds drift in from cold dry regions to low-lying sunny lands. And over and above this there are circumstances connected with the sculpturing and exposing of the land, which make the difference very great within very narrow limits of territory. Thus in Cumberland there are places, within two miles of each other, at one of which the average annual rain-fall is 47 inches more than it is at the other."

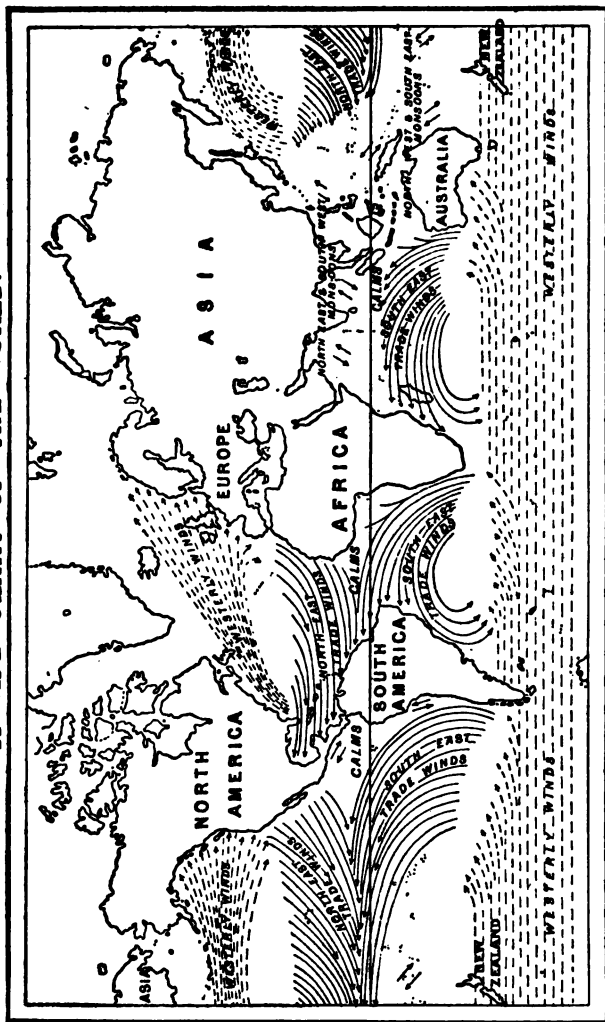
In describing various regions of the earth, we have

said enough of their climates to enable you to apply these general principles for yourself. Look, for instance, at the wind-chart on the opposite page. Follow the South-East Trade; it is blowing *from* the east, as the arrows show, *upon* the east coasts of South Africa and South America. People believed that South Africa was an inhospitable desert until Dr. Livingstone found out that it is a very fertile land, abounding in large lakes and great rivers. And why? Simply because the South-East Trade carries the vapour which it has swept off the hot Indian Ocean, and on touching the colder land, the vapour is condensed, and falls in abundant rains.

Now, follow the course of the South-East Trade on the other side of Africa: observe where it meets the North-East Trade above the equator, and that the united Trade Winds blow with full force across the South American continent. In South America the eastern mountains are not considerable, and the Trade Winds travel, vapour laden, across the continent, until they reach the great Andes. There the vapour is changed into mists and clouds and heavy rains, which feed the mighty Amazons, and the Orinoco, and make a richly fertile region, at present forest covered, but perhaps to be, one day, one of the great grain-producing districts of the world.

But the other side of the Andes, the high plateaus of Bolivia and Peru, are, for the most part, rainless deserts: the reason is not far to seek: the vapour carried by the Trade Winds has been all poured out to water the eastern plains, and by the time the winds have climbed the Andes, they are perfectly dry, and have no water left to shed upon the barren plateaus. The Trade Winds, you will notice, do not blow in from the Pacific, but out from the land over the Pacific.

# A WIND CHART OF THE WORLD.



Star/Mar/1865 Comp. 2nd ed.



Most mountain chains have, like the Andes, a windward side, on which much rain falls, and a leeward side, the slopes of which have little or no rain. That is, the side turned to the wind catches the vapour and gets the rain, and there is none left for the other side.

For the same reason, plateaus which have mountain walls are usually rainless, because the watery vapour contained in the atmosphere is caught and condensed by the cold slopes of these mountain walls, and the winds reach the table-land within drained of their moisture. Thus the mountains on the south of the plateau of Tibet catch moisture enough to feed the great rivers of India and China, while the high lands beyond are left almost rainless and riverless.

#### Lesson VI.—The Snow Line, &c.

Every one who has climbed a mountain knows that the higher he climbs, the colder the air becomes: even on our comparatively low British mountains, there are clefts and crevices which “keep till June December’s snow;” and under the equator itself we may get into regions of perpetual snow. Mount Kilimanjaro, for example, rises on the eastern heights of Africa, almost under the equator, and snow lies all the year on its summit, above an elevation of 16,400 feet. The average temperature of the air at the sea-level in this part of Africa is about 85° F., a very great degree of heat, but the presence of snow all the year round on this mountain shows that the temperature at 16,400 feet must average less than 32°. In other words, an elevation of a few thousand feet brings about a change of temperature as great as would be experienced in a voyage of 6000 miles, to the frozen region of the poles.

Judging by its latitude alone, you would suppose that the city of Quito would be unendurably hot: but what is the fact? It is lodged in a high valley of the Andes, 9500 feet above the level of the sea, and enjoys a perpetual spring. Snow lies upon the Alps the whole year round at a less elevation than this; for the height of what is called the *snow line*—that is, the line marking the elevation at which snow remains on the ground all the year through—varies with the latitude of a place, being highest at the equator, and sinking by degrees until, at the poles, it falls to the level of the sea. But there is a gradual cooling of the air perceptible as we rise above the sea-level in every part of the world.

It remains to sum up, shortly, what has been said as to the causes which affect climate.

“This term includes the general temperature, moisture, winds, and other atmospheric conditions which prevail in any district, and which directly affect the growth and vigour of plants and animals.

“We may recognise five distinct influences by which the climate of any place is determined: 1st, distance from the equator; 2nd, distance from the sea; 3rd, height above the sea; 4th, prevailing winds; and 5th, local influences, such as soil, vegetation, and proximity to lakes or to mountains.

“(i.) DISTANCE FROM THE EQUATOR.—The warmest climates are necessarily those of the inter-tropical regions, where the sun’s rays are vertical, or nearly vertical. As we recede from the equator, a less and less amount of heat is received, and round the poles, the climates are coldest.

“Were the earth’s surface either wholly land or water, the climates would be arranged in parallel bands from the equator to the poles. But owing to the way in which

land and water are grouped, two places in the same latitude may have very dissimilar climates.

“(ii.) DISTANCE FROM THE SEA.—The influence of the sea upon the distribution of temperature and moisture has been already described. As water is more slowly heated and cooled than land, the climates of the coasts are much more moist and equable than those of the interior of the land. In proportion, therefore, as places recede from the sea their climates become more extreme. An insular or oceanic climate is one where the difference between summer and winter temperature is reduced to a minimum, and where there is a copious supply of moisture from the large water surface. A continental climate is one where the summer is hot, the winter cold, and where the rainfall is comparatively slight.

“(iii.) HEIGHT ABOVE THE SEA.—This cause of variation in climate does not affect a whole country, or region, but only the elevated lands or mountain masses which rise to a considerable height above the sea. That is, it is of a more local character than the two we have spoken of.

“(iv.) PREVAILING WINDS.—Air lying upon the surface of any part of the globe tends to acquire the temperature of that surface. Consequently, winds which come from a cold region are cold, those from a warm region are warm. Winds from the sea are usually moist, those from the land are generally dry. Sea-breezes are not liable to the same extremes of temperature as those from the land. The vapour which they carry with them cools the heat of summer, and lessens the cold of winter. On the other hand, winds blowing from the interior of a continent are apt to be hot and suffocating in summer, piercing cold and dry in winter.

Winds which come from lower into higher latitudes, that is, from warmer to cooler climates, have their moisture condensed, and are therefore rainy, while those which blow from higher to lower latitudes, or from cold to warm regions, are dry.

“(v.) LOCAL INFLUENCES.—Various minor causes help to modify the climates of different places. The water of wet marshy ground absorbs the heat which should warm the soil; therefore marshy districts are colder as well as more damp than they would be if they were drained. A surface of vegetation keeps the soil cooler in summer and warmer in winter than it would be if bare: thus a large mass of forest greatly influences the climate of the region in which it lies, tempering alike the heat of the day and the cold of night. Similar effects are produced by lakes, and other large inland surfaces of water. The proximity of hills and mountains causes increased rainfall and fitful winds.”\*

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\* From Dr. Geikie's 'Physical Geography.'

## INTERCHANGE OF PRODUCTIONS.

A WELL-STOCKED grocery and provision shop is a source of endless interest: a museum always at hand for exhibiting the products of foreign lands.

Examine the pyramids of tinned meats and fruits displayed on the counter: there are ox-tongues from Paysandu and Michigan; there are turkey, and chicken, and lamb from the Western States; tinned beef and mutton from Australia. There are peaches and plums from the shores of Lake Erie; apricots from California; sardines from the Mediterranean; and curious potted meats from Germany. Yonder are hams and bacon cured at Chicago; and American butter, and American cheese. There is butter from Kiel, and butter from Brittany, and butter from Normandy: to say nothing of the various home markets.

In that corner is a pile of little tea-chests, straight from China; and, in various receptacles, are coffee and cocoa and sugar from the West Indies; tapioca and preserved ginger from Jamaica; spices from the Moluccas, the rich spice islands; rice which was grown in the valleys of the Mississippi and the Ganges. There are raisins, oranges, almonds, nuts, currants, from the shores of the Mediterranean; maccaroni, dried on Neapolitan balconies.

In that pile of odds and ends, there are sponges fished up by divers in the Mediterranean; brushes, made from the bristles of Saxony pigs; mats of cocoa-nut fibre which grew on the coral isles of the

Pacific. The very tallow candles have a history, for the tallow comes probably from sheep fed on the steppes of Russia, and herded by half-nomadic Tartars. And the better sort of candles, and the soap? The banks of the Congo and the coasts of Guinea yielded the "palm-oil" for the manufacture of these; and of all the useful commodities in the shop, none costs so heavily in British life as the palm-oil from the treacherous West African coasts. Here is olive oil, from Southern France or Italy; cod oil, expressed from the livers of fish caught off the banks of Newfoundland; mineral oil, from the Canadian oil-springs:—indeed, a large volume would not contain the history of the "goods" offered for sale behind a single counter.

Think of the innumerable voyages and overland journeys represented in the stock of one such shop, and you will get some idea of what commerce effects; how it brings to our very doors, without any forethought or effort of ours, the productions of every quarter of the world.

Commerce is simply the exchange of commodities between different nations. In a primitive state of life, the man who had baked six loaves would be glad to barter two of them for a leg of mutton with the man who had killed a sheep. In the same way, almost every nation of the world yields certain products in greater quantities than she requires for her own use: so varied are the conditions of life throughout the world that no doubt some other nation is in need of these very commodities, and would gladly exchange for them some desirable products of her own.

The merchant steps in to effect the exchange. He may belong to one of the two nations with surplus products; or he may be an outsider who keeps his eyes

open and sees what other people (or nations) are in need of. In this latter way, certain nations, as the Dutch, have become wealthy commercial States, although they have no considerable products of their own to trade with. Our merchant loads his ships with the calico let us say, of the second nation, B; paying for what he takes away. The inhabitants of the first nation, A, are too glad to buy the calico, and to sell in return their surplus corn. The ships carry the corn to B, a thickly peopled country where much bread is eaten: the corn is bought up readily, at so good a price that the merchant is paid for all the expense he has been at in making the exchange; and has, besides, a profit, his "wages," or reward, for his trouble.

But we said that the merchant carried the cottons of B to A in his *ships*, which supposes that he can reach A by sea, or by sea and river, and that there is a harbour at A in which ships may anchor. B, too, must be within easy reach of the sea, or how could he have fetched his cargo of cottons?

Here we have another of the conditions on which commerce depends: besides surplus commodities, a desire to exchange, and merchants eager to effect the exchange, there must be the means of ready communication by road, rail, river, canal, and, best of all, by open sea: that is to say, the carriage of goods must be made so easy and so cheap, that when the goods come to market they may be sold at reasonable prices; for it is plain that all the expenses of carriage must be added to the original price of articles when they are offered for sale in markets remote from the places where they were produced.

So profitable and so advantageous is this barter between nations, that almost every country under the

sun is eager for her share, and does what she can to make the carriage of goods easy and cheap within her borders: but nations which have a wide seaboard and good harbours have natural advantages for commerce with which it is impossible for the less favoured lands to compete. Therefore, in all times, the maritime nations have been the sea-going, commercial nations.

Let us imagine some dull Greenlander who has never heard of the good things made and grown in sunnier lands, and who makes himself as warm and happy as may be with furs and abundant fish-oil. The merchants find him out: so eager, so bold, so adventurous are they, that there is no corner of the world which their ships do not discover. *They* want seal-skins, and fish-oil, too; so they teach the Greenlander to desire a hundred things that his ice-bound seas will not yield; these they supply him with, and carry off, in return, his precious skins and oils.

Through the enterprise of the merchants commerce is carried on between the remotest lands of the earth: the circulation of productions has become almost as universal as the circulation of the atmosphere: and it is tolerably safe to say that any given region exports whatever it yields—in the way of natural produce, as timber, minerals, and the produce of the fisheries; agricultural produce, as fruits and corn; tallow and hides; or manufactured goods, as woollen stuffs and hardware. Three limitations must, however, be borne in mind: the productions, like some tropical fruits, may be too fragile to allow of transport; or, like the furniture and household stuffs made by the Bulgarian peasant, they may be too rude to command a price in other markets: or they may be hardly sufficient for the inhabitants of the place where they are produced, like the corn-crops of Britain.



It is plain that this world-wide interchange of productions brings wealth into the coffers of the merchants and of the retail shop-keepers, of the ship-owners, the railway companies, and of all who are concerned in this gigantic system of fetching and carrying, down to the railway porters, waggoners, and stokers. Also, so greatly does our daily comfort depend upon commerce that it is difficult to imagine how we should live if the last ship-load of goods from other lands had reached our shores.

But are the benefits of commerce confined to the traders and their dependents, and to the consumers? Dr. Livingstone, the great missionary of South Africa, did not think so: his most earnest desire was to preach the Gospel; and yet, in his various exploring expeditions, he devoted himself especially to the opening up of *trade routes*; because he considered that commerce brought civilisation in its train, and civilisation should be the best preparation for Christianity. Nor is it only upon barbarous peoples that commerce exercises a civilising influence; it promotes, on the whole, kind and friendly feelings, and a desire for peace between the nations which trade with one another; and it leads to the rapid spread of the knowledge of new inventions and improvements in the arts of life.

To attempt to give any account of the exports and imports of the various countries of the world would be to repeat what we have already said. A nation exports what she produces, and imports such goods, suitable to the needs of her people, as she does not produce. It is of little use to learn lists of the exports and imports of many lands. We have endeavoured to give you pictures of the countries of the world, with the people upon them engaged in their common occupations: you

see the Chinaman at work in his "paddy-field," the negro tending the sugar plantations of Jamaica, the cattle-breeder of the Western States leading a wild life amongst his herds: if we have been successful in our efforts, if you really can form a mental picture of most regions of the world, and of the doings of the people who dwell within them—basking, here, in tropic sunshine, and shivering, there, on ice-bound coasts—you will have no difficulty in deciding what the exports of any given country must be. You will see, too, what commodities her people are likely to need, and where she is most likely to get these, and where she may find a market for her own surplus productions.

We will only add, that, as a rule, thickly-peopled, long-civilised countries are eager to import raw produce, corn to feed their people, and materials for their manufactures; while thinly-peopled countries, with few towns and plenty of growing-room, are glad to import the manufactures of other countries, and to export the yield of corn-fields and pastures, forests and fisheries.



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